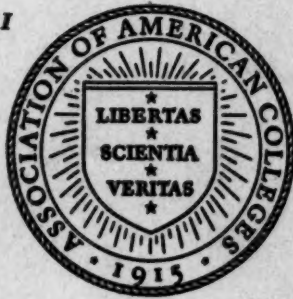


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ASSOCIATION OF AMERICAN COLLEGES BULLETIN

VOLUME XXXI



NUMBER 4

Moral and Spiritual Recovery From War
College Dormitories As Investments
Four Curriculum Plans

DECEMBER, 1945

Association of American Colleges Bulletin

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The BULLETIN is published four times a year—in March, May, October and December. Its emphasis is on description and exposition, not primarily on criticism or controversy. The March issue regularly carries the Proceedings of the Annual Meeting of the Association. Leaders in the college world contribute to every issue.

Annual Subscription Rates: Regular \$3.00; to members of Association colleges special rates are offered: individual subscriptions, \$1.00; ten or more club subscriptions, mailed in one package for distribution at the college, 50 cents each. Address the Association of American Colleges, 19 West 44th Street, New York 18, N. Y.

EDITORIAL NOTES

CHANCELLOR O. C. CARMICHAEL of Vanderbilt University has been elected president of the Carnegie Foundation for Teachers: he will serve also as the educational advisor to the president and Board of Trustees of the Carnegie Corporation.

ROBERT MCALLISTER LLOYD became president of Teachers Insurance and Annuity Association on October 1, 1945, succeeding Devereux C. Josephs, who resigned to become president of the Carnegie Corporation of New York on June 1 of this year.

INSTRUCTIONAL FILMS on education, child welfare, biology, health and medicine, science and also informational films, both historical and current, may be borrowed from the Regional Offices of the British Information Services for a handling charge of 25 cents a reel. For a free catalog or further information apply to "Film Officer, British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20, New York."

THE TUITION PLAN announces the establishment of a fund, to be known as the Educational Research Fund, for the purpose of conducting research studies in the field of education. Doctor Benjamin Fine, distinguished author and editor, has been commissioned to make the initial study on the topic, "Policies and Practices of Admission to American Colleges."

THE AMERICAN POLITICAL SCIENCE ASSOCIATION has published a *Directory* containing biographical sketches of the members of the organization, together with a geographical list of members and of subscribers to the official journal, and a list of members classified according to primary fields of competence in political science and also in the social sciences. Biographical sketches indicate the education, academic experiences, research activities, publications and civic and governmental service of the members. The volume is edited by Dr. Franklin L. Burdette, executive secretary of the National Foundation for Education and associate professor of history and political science,

Butler University, Indianapolis, Indiana. Copies may be ordered from the Association at Northwestern University, 1822 Sheridan Road, Evanston, Illinois.

THE GEOPHYSICS EDUCATION COMMITTEE OF THE AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF MINING AND METALLURGICAL ENGINEERS wishes to call attention to its files and publications which contain information of value to institutions expecting to expand their offerings and personnel in the field of the Earth Sciences. Communications regarding this information should be addressed to: H. W. Straley, III, 5532 Friendship Station, Washington 16, D. C.

SCHOLARSHIPS TO MEET THE NEEDS OF NEW YORK YOUTH FOR HIGHER EDUCATION, through graphic presentations, reveals some of the unmet needs in higher education in the State of New York. It presents the issues involved in meeting these needs and invites serious consideration of a scholarship designed to place the State in a position of leadership in higher education. Published by the State Education Department, Albany, New York.

KEYS TO PROFESSIONAL INFORMATION FOR TEACHERS by Roy C. Bryan is written for teachers and students in education courses. The reader is introduced to library tools or keys and guides to information of all kinds, that prove useful in locating the kinds of professional material needed from time to time in education courses and in teaching. Published by Edwards Brothers, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

JUNIOR COLLEGE ACCOUNTING MANUAL by Henry Glenn Badger, has been published jointly by the American Council on Education and the American Association of Junior Colleges with the hope of "promoting a more rational, more intelligent, and more nearly comparable system of financial accounting." Its model forms, definitions of accounting terminology and suggestions of items of equipment and supplies for quick checking of records, should make it of interest not only to junior and small four-year colleges but also to all fiscal officers

of educational institutions. Published by American Council on Education, Washington, D. C.

THE object of **ONLY BY UNDERSTANDING**, and all of the **HEADLINE SERIES**, is to "provide sufficient unbiased background information to enable readers to reach intelligent and independent conclusions on the important international problems of the day." This particular volume is based on the theory that in order to achieve peace, justice and good will we must first have complete understanding of other peoples, and the only way to attain this understanding is through education—now an international problem. The author is William G. Carr. Published by Foreign Policy Association, 22 East 38th Street, New York, New York.

UNITED NATIONS PRIMER by Sigrid Arne contains the full text of the fifteen International Conferences from the Atlantic Charter to the San Francisco meeting on the United Nations Organization. It explains each conference with great economy of words—what it was to do, what it did, how it fits into the grand scheme for a world at peace. Published by Farrar & Rinehart, New York, New York.

THE CONTINUING BATTLE FOR THE CONTROL OF THE MIND OF YOUTH is a reprint of the Introduction to the 29th edition of the Handbook of Private Schools. It is an interpretation of current educational trends in what has been said and done and what's behind the words. Published by Porter Sargent, 11 Beacon Street, Boston, Massachusetts.

BETWEEN TWO WARS (The Failure of Education 1920–1940) summarizes contemporary writings of the period indicated and includes numerous notations with "references to individuals and their writings," which tend to show how the thinking of the two decades was gradually shaped. The author is Porter Sargent, who has written a number of books that are challenging. He writes in a pungent and provocative style. There is no quarrel with his conclusion that "the greatest sin is ignorance." We can endorse this theory by the misuse of propa-

ganda by those in high positions; also that national and international sinister influences "have frostdbitten the better tendencies of mankind and brought us to the present mess." It would seem that one cure would be the realization of all educated persons that they should take more interest in public affairs, which would certainly tend to improve political leadership, locally, nationally and internationally. Then, too, the situation would be greatly helped if all citizens lived up to the teachings to be found in the Sermon on the Mount. The book is published by Porter Sargent, 11 Beacon Street, Boston, Massachusetts.

STUDYING LAW by Arthur T. Vanderbilt, dean of the New York University Law School and former president of the American Bar Association, is a "must" for all college and university guidance and counseling officers. The book is a compilation of selections from the writings of these famous lawyers and law professors: Albert J. Beveridge, John Maxcy Zane, Munroe Smith, Roscoe Pound, Arthur L. Goodhart, Eugene Wambaugh, John H. Wigmore and Charles B. Stephens. The selection from the pen of the late Senator Albert J. Beveridge on "The Young Lawyer and His Beginnings" is most inspiring. In Dean Vanderbilt's introduction he emphasizes the fact that the prospective lawyer will find that his profession is not a "mere money-making trade" but is "dedicated to serving the public interest." He further adds: "The great lawyer is distinguished primarily by force of character, by capacity for work and by willingness to devote his talents in the public interest to the solution of the problems of the workaday world." The book is published by the Washington Square Publishing Corporation, New York, New York.

The next ANNUAL MEETING of the Association will be held at the Hotel Cleveland, Cleveland, Ohio, January 10-11, 1946. The National Commission on Christian Higher Education and other affiliated groups will hold their meetings as usual the earlier part of the week. The theme of the annual meeting will include the general idea of "lessons of the war." The Board hopes to have some outstanding persons on the program, as has been its custom in the past few years.

ARTS PROGRAM

THE season is in full swing with the majority of our artists ably representing us, via the medium of their varied talents, in colleges and universities throughout the nation. A few, while awaiting the start of their respective tours, have utilized their time by delighting New York audiences with concerts and recitals.

Katherine Bacon, English pianist, gave her first New York recital in five years on November 3, in Town Hall. Her superb rendition of the compositions of Bach, Couperin, Schumann, Liszt, Chopin, Ravel and Saint-Saëns, was warmly received by a large and responsive audience. No more eloquent tribute can be given to this accomplished artist than the following quotation gleaned from Noel Straus' column in the New York Times: "Miss Bacon's approach to the music in hand was as always serious, modest and sincere . . . the performances of the Chopin études, especially the examples in A flat major and F minor, were fluently and sensitively set forth, with niceties of accentuation that lent real charm."

John Kirkpatrick, pianist, presented his annual concert at Times Hall on November 12. An outstanding event of the evening was his playing of the first performance of Sgt. John Lessard's "Second Sonata."

Raul Spivak, Argentine pianist, added more laurels to his reputation as a virtuoso at a concert at Carnegie Hall on November 23. His impressive rendering of Scarlatti, Beethoven, Chopin, Debussy, Ville-Lobos, Garcia Marillo, Luis Gianneo and Paganini-Liszt was applauded by an appreciative gathering.

Some of our visiting faculty members have changed their positions during this season. Among this group:

Eugene Pfaff, lecturer and authority on Political Science, has returned to his post as Professor of Modern History at the Woman's College of The University of North Carolina at Greensboro.

Arnold D. Graeffe, formerly head of the art department and professor of music at Doane College in Crete, Nebraska, has joined the staff of the art department of Stephens College in Columbia, Missouri.

Joaquin Nin-Culmell has temporarily interrupted his lecture tour to make a trip to Havana where he is appearing as soloist with the Havana Symphony Orchestra. He will return to the States in February and continue to fill his commitments for the Arts Program.

Eric T. Clarke, former director of the Arts Program, and now a member of the Arts Commission, has secured a temporary leave of absence from the Metropolitan Opera Company and is now in Germany, commissioned by the United States Army to direct the musical activities in the American occupied area. He expects to return to the Metropolitan Opera Company after January 1.

We welcome home Mr. Julian De Gray, one of the inaugurators of the faculty-visitor program, who has completed his work with the American Consulate in Sweden, and returned to the states. He has resumed his duties as a professor on the faculty of Bennington College.

Ernst Wolff, Tenor, will be soloist at the Association's annual meeting to be held in Cleveland, January 9 to 11. One of the pioneers engaged to inaugurate the plan of sending artists for a two-day visit to a college campus, Wolff has visited well over 100 colleges in the Association membership. Trained in Europe as coach of lieder and operatic singing, he was Conductor at the Frankfort Opera House before coming to this country. He continues the tradition of the world's greatest lieder singers by the unique feature of the self-accompaniment.

NATIONAL COMMISSION ON CHRISTIAN HIGHER EDUCATION

THE *Annual Meeting*, under the chairmanship of Irwin J. Lubbers, President of Hope College, Michigan, will be held at Hotel Cleveland, Cleveland, Ohio, on Wednesday, January 9. In the morning there will be a session for Junior Colleges. In the afternoon, when the business session will be held, the promotional opportunities and responsibilities of the church-related colleges will be stressed. In addition to an address by an authority in this field, there will be a movie on Christian Education in general and one showing what a particular college can do. At the evening session, President Robert I. Gannon of Fordham University will speak on "Naturalism in the Schools," and the Rev. Bernard C. Clausen of the Euclid Avenue Baptist Church, Cleveland, will speak on "Atomic Education."

Universal Peacetime Military Training was given careful consideration by the National Commission at its meeting held in Cincinnati on September 28. It was voted:

That the National Commission on Christian Higher Education respectfully urges—

1. That every possible effort be made by the Government of the United States to bring about the abandonment of peacetime military conscription, on the part of all nations.
2. That a Commission of prominent citizens be appointed by the President, or by Congress, to make a complete study of the whole problem of national defense, and to report their recommendations before the Congress takes any action on the issue of Universal Peacetime Military Training.

The Resolution was sent to the President of the United States and to the Committees on Military Affairs of both the Senate and the House of Representatives.

A *Committee on Legislation* was authorized by the National Commission, whose responsibility will be to keep in touch with prospective legislation which has special interest for the church-related colleges, and also to suggest legislation which ought to be passed in the same interest. The members of the Committee are Edward V. Stanford, Washington, D. C., E. Fay Campbell,

Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, Rees E. Tulloss, Springfield, Ohio, and Gould Wickey, Washington, D. C.

Campus Religious Visitors will contact a goodly number of colleges during the present academic year. The efforts in this direction, put forth by the boards of education of certain denominations, will include about 75 colleges. In addition, the National Commission will make available speakers. Dr. Wickey, Executive Secretary of the National Commission, will be available for colleges in South Carolina, Florida, and Georgia, during the latter part of February and the first part of March. Other visitors will be announced from time to time to the colleges in the regions where they are available.

A *Regional Conference* was held at Omaha on November 14th, with more than one hundred in attendance. This conference has been held annually for eleven years without interruption—the only regional conference with such an uninterrupted record. Under the chairmanship of President M. Earle Collins, Tarkio College, Missouri, an interesting and stimulating program was presented. The general theme was: Peacetime Problems of Christian Higher Education. Among the subjects discussed were: Science Challenges the Church-Related Colleges, Colleges and the Small Towns, College Faculties and Enrolments, Veterans and College Education, Changes in College Curricula, Emphases on Guidance and Counselling, and Religion in College Programs.

Among the speakers were: Professor S. J. Vellenga, Tarkio College, Missouri; Dr. E. L. Kirkpatrick, Special Field Agent, Farm Journal, Washington, D. C.; President Franc L. McCluer, Westminster College, Missouri, and Vice-President of the Association of American Colleges; Dean Arthur Wald, Augustana College, Illinois; Dean Kenneth Browne, Doane College, Nebraska; Dr. Silas Evans, Lindenwood College for Women, Missouri; President Carter Davidson, Knox College, Illinois; Mrs. Mary McBriar, Nebraska Wesleyan University; President T. S. Bowdern, Creighton University, Nebraska.

MORAL AND SPIRITUAL RECOVERY FROM WAR

HERBERT HOOVER

FORMER PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES

WE HAVE ended a bloody and horrible era of history. It has been a war in which the enslavement, the starvation and killing of women, children and civilian men have returned to the levels which we thought had gone by a thousand years ago.

America has emerged as the most powerful of nations if we wish to use that power. In any event, we now have the opportunity to give leadership in a new era for humanity. What the distant future of this new era will be depends much upon our institutions of higher learning. They must mould the leadership of the nation.

But beyond this the war has imposed upon you who are enjoying the privileges of this institution, and all the men and women of our colleges, an immediate responsibility to the American people such as you have never hitherto known.

We hear much about the reconversion of economic life from war to peace. We hear little about reconversion of our intellectual, moral and spiritual life from the shock of war to a life of peace. Yet that is the first necessity if civilization itself is to recover.

Surely if the new era upon which we enter is to be an era of progress it must rest upon the rebirth of truth and justice and tolerance. It must rest upon intellectual and spiritual freedom and upon a live public sensitiveness to wrong and a resentment of brutality. The redemption of mankind will depend upon those who can give intellectual, moral and spiritual leadership in these immediate years.

To indicate how much reconversion we need in this field we should frankly examine some examples of the degeneration of our ideals during this war. Such an appraisal will not be popular with those whose war emotions still drown their reason, although I shall speak with restraint. Yet facing these facts is the first step to redemption. And now is the time to face them.

NOTE: Address delivered October 13, 1945, at Seventy-fifth Anniversary of Wilson College.

THE DEGRADATION OF TRUTH

Let us examine what has happened to truth. It is the first fatality of any war. And total war results in the mass slaughter of truth. Propaganda is one of the weapons of war. And propaganda is at best but half truth. It tells only one side. Its justification is that strategy requires that the enemy be misled. Morale at home in war also requires a boost of spirit by suppression of some things and emphasis on others. War controls are used to cover up blunders and failures. Another taint of untruth still hangs heavy in the air. One of Lenin's principles of propaganda was to confuse vocabularies. At one time America had simple and well-understood expressions, such as self-government, independence of nations, democracy, personal freedom and liberalism. The war leaves us with these phrases stuffed with perversions of truth.

Exploitation of emotion, regimentation of the press and confusion are not operations in pure intellectual honesty. And these practices leave an imprint of the usefulness of lies. The consequence is that the habit of the war-perfected skills of government propaganda are carried over into peace. There is no national permanence in falsehood. There will be no lasting integrity in citizens unless there be intellectual honesty in government.

THE DEGENERATION OF JUSTICE

The war has temporarily injured something in our ideals of justice. Our righteous indignations at the crimes which brought this war and the brutalities of the enemy have clouded our vision of justice.

Justice demands that the men responsible for this must be punished. It requires that the military castes and their weapons be destroyed and be kept destroyed.

But justice also requires that we do not visit on the children of millions of Germans and Japanese the sins of their fathers. Nor can we justly indict and punish two hundred million people. Vengeance and revenge are not justice. Measures which reduce the economic life of coming generations to the low levels of an agricultural state are neither justice nor good policy. That will create gigantic cesspools of hate, poverty and conspiracy against the world. There is no such thing as a "hard peace" or a "soft

peace." It must be a just peace if we are to restore justice in the world. And without justice there is no peace.

THE GROWTH OF BRUTALITY

We have lost something in our sensitiveness to brutality. For instance, before the war we protested in deep indignation the bombing of children, women and civilian men by the Japanese at Nanking, the Russians at Helsinki, the Germans at Warsaw and London. We said war must be confined to clashes of armed men, not the killing of civilians. Yet did we not wind up the war by killing tens of thousands of women and children at Hiroshima and Nagasaki? Even if we grant that it was necessary, it is not a matter to exult over.

Thousands of people are still being committed to concentration camps in Eastern Europe without a semblance of justice or compassion. Under the name of reparations men are being seized, and prisoners are being worked under conditions reminiscent of Roman slavery. Yet we have become so habituated to brutality that we are tolerating it with little protest.

THE DEGENERATION OF FREEDOM

We have lost something of our ideals of freedom. We went into the war under the persuasion of such ideas as the Four Freedoms and the Atlantic Charter. This was to be our second and last crusade to free the world from domination, from despotism, from imperialism, from brutality, from fear. Our banners have always proclaimed the freedom and the rights of nations and of men.

Now we find hundreds of millions of human beings breathe less independence, less liberty, less freedom from fear than before we started on this crusade. Their successful rescue at that time was the justification of our first crusade. Can we honestly say that we have not surrendered these peoples on the altar of appeasement?

THE LOSS OF TRAINED MINDS AND SKILLS

The war has brought us a loss in our intellectual life from another direction. In our lists of dead are a multitude who would have given intellectual leadership to our people. Of those who survived, the draft and diversion to war have cost us the equivalent of six annual crops of young men trained in the professions

and the arts. I regret to say that, after the interruptions of war, too small a part of them are returning to colleges for training. Worst of all, by continuing the draft of boys between 18 and 21 since the war has ended we are destroying still another crop. There will sometime be a shortage in scientists, teachers, doctors, engineers, lawyers and our leaders in the humanities. It is not even intelligent of our military forces to continue depriving our future defense of these skills.

OTHER DEGENERATIONS

I will not dwell on more examples of our moral, spiritual and intellectual losses. I could rail against the rise of nationalistic and group selfishness. I could bewail the decrease of compassion which distinguishes Christianity. I could deplore the growth of intolerance. I could expand upon the impairment of the whole cultural structure of the world. I could emphasize the loss of faith in our American system of life.

However, these degenerations in ideals and standards, this insensitiveness to wrong are common to all wars. We have recovered from them before and we can recover from them again if we have wisdom and courage.

The immediate danger to the world is a sense of frustration in America at the failure of our crusade for freedom and our continued moral and spiritual losses from the war. For from frustration can come bitter isolationism.

THE WAR IS NOT ALL LOSS

And do not get the idea that I am saying the consequences of the war are all bad. The war involved questions of national defense. We made important scientific discoveries, especially in the manipulation of the atom. The heroic deeds of America's sons and daughters have added to the glory of the nation. They have enriched our traditions of valor. The war resulted in the extirpation of three of the festering sores of military aggression in the world. We have a start at world cooperation to at least maintain military peace.

But I am not here discussing our world situation. I am concerned with the recovery of our own American intellectual and moral and spiritual standards from their war degeneration.

THE PART OF OUR EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS

Some one may say that for regeneration of moral and spiritual ideals we should again return to the Sermon on the Mount. That is right, but the responsibility for the idealism of America does not rest alone on the Church. It rests also upon our institutions of higher learning, for such institutions have loyalty to standards as vital as to patriotism itself. They also have the responsibility to proclaim truth and tolerance, to insist upon justice, to awaken a sensitiveness to wrong, to selfishness, to brutality.

Indeed, without these values, there can be no successful reconversion of even the economic world from war to peace. Adam Smith taught that all material wealth comes from the earth with its increment of value from labor and skill. But he mostly overlooked the most important asset of nations without which no amount of soil or mines or labor can produce lasting wealth. That indispensable asset is moral and spiritual; it is integrity, justice and a willingness to unselfish cooperation of its citizens.

LEADERSHIP

It is a commonplace to say that in this complex modern civilization no nation can survive without leadership. And by leadership I do not speak of public life alone. We must have leadership in every branch of life from the shop foreman to the President. We must have leadership among the neighbors and in the home.

One of the riches of American life is the vast reservoir of leadership in the people. But leaders are not found like queen bees. Neither does heredity produce them and certainly bureaucracy does not do so. It is our educational system rooted in the whole people upon which we must depend to develop leaders. That is, the mechanism of free men through which youngsters with qualities of mind and character are promoted from the whole people and trained for leadership. From here must come the constant stream of young men and women who will refresh our ideals.

No doubt there are men and women who rise to leadership without the full help of our colleges. But our national supply would be poor indeed if we had to depend upon this method.

But an intangible corruption has come into our concepts of leadership during the past few years. It is dinned into us that this is the century of the common man; that he is going to do this

and demand that—the idea seems to be that common man has come into his own at last. Certainly he is a good vote-getting attachment.

Thus we have developed a cult of the common man. I have not been able to find any definition of who this common man is. Most American men and especially women will fight if called common. Likewise in humility we refer to ourselves as made from common clay but we get mad when anyone says our feet are made of clay.

However, whoever this political common man is, I want him to have all the unique benefits of the American way of life including full opportunity to rise to leadership. But if we are to have leadership in government, in science, in education, in the professions and in the home, we must find and train some uncommon men and women.

The only seriously objectionable part of this deification of the common man is the implication that mediocrity is an ideal, that the uncommon man is to be discredited or discarded.

Let us remember that the great advances have not been brought about by mediocre men and women. Rather they were brought about by distinctly uncommon men and women with vital sparks of leadership—men and women like St. Francis of Assisi, and Florence Nightingale and Abraham Lincoln. Many of these great leaders were, it is true, of humble origin, but that was not their greatness.

The most gigantic experiment of this cult of all history was the dictatorship of the proletariat in Russia. It is from the fumes of this cauldron that we mostly get these ideas. But one of the humors of sociology—if there is humor in it—is that the most recent phase of the revolution in Russia is a frantic search for the uncommon man. And he is given privileges and payment relatively to other citizens far more than America offers today.

There is no identity whatever between mediocrity and popular government—although that is what many of our bubble blowers are trying to put over on the American people.

The essence of our American system is that the best are to be selected for public responsibility and public service. It is also the essence of our economic life, our spiritual life, our educational institutions.

We have a recent and powerful example. In the command of

our military forces and our scientific forces during the war we searched and found the uncommon men and women. They proved that they could give leadership without being dictators or fascists or endangering popular government.

Despite this curious cult who erect antagonisms to the uncommon man, I am confident it will not confuse our educational institutions. Our sure hope of recovery in the moral and spiritual world is the wealth of uncommon men and women among our people. And it is our educational institutions that will promote and train them.

CONCLUSION

To sum up, may I say that the colleges have a great obligation courageously to restore our moral and spiritual losses from the war, to renew our ideals of freedom, to regain our sensitiveness to wrong and to provide the nation with renewed supply of trained leadership. Unless we rebuild this new era on these foundations, it means the war has been lost. It means more. It means that civilization is lost. I am convinced that our educational institutions are equal to this, the greatest of tasks.

COLLEGE DORMITORIES AS INVESTMENTS

VIVIAN THOMAS SMITH

PRESIDENT, UPPER IOWA UNIVERSITY

IN APRIL, 1939, in order to obtain information pertaining to profits or losses on college dormitories, a questionnaire was sent to ninety-nine selected colleges in the North-Central and Central Western States. Again in April, 1945, in order to learn the effect of the war on dormitory investment profits, a second questionnaire was sent to the seventy-two colleges from which usable replies to the first had been received. Both studies were made at Upper Iowa University, a liberal arts college in northeastern Iowa in which between three and four hundred students were regularly enrolled. All of the colleges selected for the studies were privately controlled church-related institutions.

While the shortness of the questionnaires may have increased the number of responses, the fact that eighty of the ninety-nine colleges first addressed returned replies, is an indication of the interest in the problem. This interest was further manifested by the number of college officials who requested a summary of the study. The seventy-two usable replies¹ represented schools distributed in eleven states as indicated in Table I.

TABLE I
COLLEGES PARTICIPATING IN DORMITORY STUDIES*

Institution	Location
*Colorado College	Colorado Springs, Colorado
*Augustana College	Rock Island, Illinois
*Carthage College	Carthage, Illinois
*Eureka College	Eureka, Illinois
*Greenville College	Greenville, Illinois
*Illinois College	Jacksonville, Illinois
*Illinois Wesleyan College	Bloomington, Illinois
*James Millikin University	Decatur, Illinois
*Knox College	Galesburg, Illinois
*McKendree College	Lebanon, Illinois
*MacMurray College	Jacksonville, Illinois
*Monmouth College	Monmouth, Illinois
Earlham College	Richmond, Indiana
*Goshen College	Goshen, Indiana
*Indiana Central College	Indianapolis, Indiana
*Marion College	Marion, Indiana

¹ Eight of the colleges reported that they had no dormitories.

TABLE I—(Continued)

Institution	Location
*Central College	Pella, Iowa
*Coe College	Cedar Rapids, Iowa
*Cornell College	Mount Vernon, Iowa
*Drake University	Des Moines, Iowa
*Grinnell College	Grinnell, Iowa
Iowa Wesleyan College	Mount Pleasant, Iowa
*Kletzing (John Fletcher) College	University Park, Iowa
*Loras College	Dubuque, Iowa
*Luther College	Decorah, Iowa
*Morningside College	Sioux City, Iowa
*St. Ambrose College	Davenport, Iowa
*Simpson College	Indianola, Iowa
*University of Dubuque	Dubuque, Iowa
*Wartburg College	Waverly, Iowa
*Western Union College	LeMars, Iowa
William Penn College	Oskaloosa, Iowa
*Baker University	Baldwin City, Kansas
*Bethel College	North Newton, Kansas
*College of Emporia	Emporia, Kansas
*Kansas Wesleyan University	Salina, Kansas
*McPherson College	McPherson, Kansas
*Ottawa University	Ottawa, Kansas
*Southwestern College	Winfield, Kansas
*Washburn Municipal University	Topeka, Kansas
*Adrian College	Adrian, Michigan
*Alma College	Alma, Michigan
*Emmanuel Missionary College	Berrien Springs, Michigan
*Hillsdale College	Hillsdale, Michigan
*Hope College	Holland, Michigan
*Olivet College	Olivet, Michigan
Carleton College	Northfield, Minnesota
*Concordia College	Moorhead, Minnesota
*Gustavus Adolphus College	St. Peter, Minnesota
*Hamline University	St. Paul, Minnesota
*Macalester College	St. Paul, Minnesota
Drury College	Springfield, Missouri
*Missouri Valley College	Marshall, Missouri
*Park College	Parkville, Missouri
*Tarkio College	Tarkio, Missouri
Westminster College	Fulton, Missouri
*Dana College	Blair, Nebraska
*Doane College	Crete, Nebraska
*Hastings College	Hastings, Nebraska
*Nebraska Central College	Central City, Nebraska
*Jamestown College	Jamestown, North Dakota
*Antioch College	Yellow Springs, Ohio
*Ashland College	Ashland, Ohio
*Baldwin-Wallace College	Berea, Ohio
*Fenn College	Cleveland, Ohio
*Findlay College	Findlay, Ohio
*Hiram College	Hiram, Ohio
*Marietta College	Marietta, Ohio
*Mount Union College	Alliance, Ohio
*Muskingum College	New Concord, Ohio
*Wittenberg College	Springfield, Ohio
*Wooster, The College of	Wooster, Ohio

* Colleges marked * returned replies to both questionnaires.

TECHNIQUES USED

The procedures used in the study were not highly technical. Two techniques were used. The first (see Table II) was to com-

TABLE II
INDEX OF PROFIT REPORTED FOR DORMITORIES OF VARIOUS TYPES

Type factor	Classification	Number of buildings reported	Index of profit
Sex of occupants	Women	107	3.03
	Men	75	3.01
Age of building	Old (Built before 1915)	82	2.83
	New (Built since 1915)	79	2.97
Size of building	Small (Less than eighty students)	85	2.85
	Large (Eighty students or more)	79	3.26
Rates to students	Low (Below \$2.00 per week)	86	2.82
	High (\$2.00 per week or above)	79	3.24
Compulsory residence	Required	85	3.31
	Not required	38	2.74

This table lists in the first column the factors that are studied; in the second column each of the factors is divided into two arbitrary groups for comparison purposes; in the third, the number of buildings included in each subgroup; and in the fourth column, the index of profit for each group.

As stated above, the arbitrary classifications are listed in the second column. The date, 1915, was taken as the arbitrary dividing point between old and new dormitories. A capacity of eighty students was taken as the division point between small and large dormitories, and two dollars per week as the dividing point between low and high rentals to students. Indices of profit are found in the last column. "Index of profit" is simply the average reported profitableness for all dormitories in the group under consideration.

pute the "index of profit" for all dormitories sharing a certain characteristic to a particular degree and compare that index with

TABLE III

DISTRIBUTION OF 182 COLLEGE DORMITORIES INTO GROUPS OF VARYING PROFIT, SHOWING AVERAGE AGE, AVERAGE SIZE, AVERAGE RENTAL RATE, AND NUMBER REQUIRING RESIDENCE IN EACH GROUP

Profit groups	Number of dormitories reported			Average age of building	Average size of building	Average* weekly rate to students	Number of colleges that require residence					
							Women		Men			
	Women	Men	Total				Yes	No	Yes	No		
1. Regularly loses money	9	3	12	43 years	35 students	\$1.85	2	1	0	1		
2. Just pays way	31	20	51	42 years	72 students	2.12	11	4	6	9		
3. Makes small profit	35	31	66	34 years	90 students	2.40	22	6	14	12		
4. Equals other investments	13	10	23	24 years	124 students	2.76	8	1	5	2		
5. Exceeds other investments	19	11	30	13 years	123 students	2.62	11	0	6	1		

* These average weekly rates are computed on the first study and would be increased about 25% on the basis of the rates reported in 1945.

In this table, all dormitories are divided into five classifications on the basis of profit and the average age, size, and weekly rate for each profit group are indicated, as well as the number of colleges in each group that require residence in their dormitories. From this table, certain general facts may be obtained, such as the number of men's dormitories and women's dormitories, and the total number in each classification group. It can also be seen how the characteristics of dormitories in each profit group compare with the characteristics of the other groups.

the index of another group having the same characteristic to a different degree. For example, the index of old dormitories was compared with that of new, etc. The "index" was simply the average of the numbers showing the degree of profit for all dormitories included in the group.

The second technique (see Table III) was to find the average degree of each characteristic shared by the members of a profit group and compare it with the average degree for other groups. Thus the average age of dormitories in the (No. 1) no-profit group is compared with the average of the (No. 5) highest-profit group.

FACTORS AFFECTING PROFIT

In accord with the purpose of the study, both questionnaires inquired regarding the experience of colleges with respect to the profit or loss from investments in student dormitories. Five degrees of profitableness were listed ranging from "1. Regularly loses money on investments," to "5. Produces a profit better than other investments." The second, third and fourth degrees were "2. Just pays its way," "3. Makes a small profit," and "4. About equals profit from other college investments."

While factual information regarding the number of profitable dormitories was a matter of interest, it was believed that the value of the study would be increased if certain factors that might influence the results were known concerning the dormitories in each profit group. For example, it was thought desirable to compare the profitableness of women's dormitories with men's, new dormitories with old, large dormitories with small, dormitories charging a high weekly rental with those where rental was low, and dormitories where residence was required with those where it was not. Information was requested in the first questionnaire regarding each of these factors, and the second part of the study inquired about changed conditions since 1939.

Another factor that certainly would influence the profitableness of the investment, but which could not be measured accurately in this study, is efficiency of management. There is little doubt but that efficiently administered dormitories may be made to pay under circumstances in which some other dormitories might show a loss. Such matters as effective methods of collecting, proper care of the building and furniture, savings in heat, light and

water, economy in service costs, keeping the dormitory occupied to full capacity, are matters that would be worthy of attention in a more comprehensive study.

In this study it was assumed that efficiency of management was a variable factor that would have less and less influence on the average as the number of cases was increased. However, an effort was made to find out the extent of occupancy as compared with capacity and the requirements of colleges in each profit group for student residence in dormitories, both of which sets of facts reflect administration practices.

SEX OF OCCUPANTS

One type of data of general interest is the number of dormitories for men and the number for women in each profit group. A careful study of the data given in the two tables indicates that there was no significant difference between the profits made in the two types of dormitories. Table II shows that the 107 dormitories for women had an index of profit of 3.03 while the 75 men's dormitories had an index of 3.01. The dormitories listed in Table III were about equally distributed for each sex in proportion to the total number reporting.

It thus appears that dormitories for men were no more and no less profitable than dormitories for women, when all other factors were taken into consideration. For this reason, the other data in the tables have not been divided for the different sexes except in the case of compulsory residence where there was a noticeable difference in the requirements for boys and girls. Usually the weekly charge in women's dormitories was somewhat higher, but the reported profit did not seem to be influenced by that difference in rate. Perhaps this was due to the increased costs for maintenance of rooms in the girls' dormitories. It is possible that such items as extra maid service, extra laundry and extra electricity accounted for the difference.

AGE OF BUILDINGS

As indicated in Table II, 82 of the dormitories reported in the study were built before 1915 and 79 in 1915 or later. The index of profit for the two groups was slightly in favor of the newer buildings. The index for the old buildings being 2.83 and for

the new, 2.97. However, the difference in these indices was so small as to appear insignificant.

The influence of the age of dormitory buildings becomes more apparent, however, when they are divided into more groups as indicated in Table III. In that table it is seen that the dormitories that regularly lost money averaged 43 years in age and that those from which a greater profit was received than from other college investments averaged only thirteen years with a consistent decrease of age as the profit increased.

SIZE OF BUILDINGS

The newness of buildings was tied up with increased rates and increased size. A higher rate was charged in the more attractive and more comfortable new buildings, and the newer buildings had larger average capacity. These larger buildings showed a larger average profit, doubtless due to increased economy in running larger buildings. One reply from a college business manager stated that "to be run at a profit, a dormitory must house 115 students." However, this study reveals that the 66 dormitories reported as making a small profit averaged a capacity of 90 and some of them were much smaller.

In Table II the 85 dormitories with capacities of less than eighty students are shown to have had an average profit index of 2.85, while the 79 larger dormitories had an index of 3.26. Again, this shows more clearly in Table III, where the average size of dormitories that regularly lost money is listed as 35 students and those that excelled other investments in profit was 123 students with consistent increases in capacity in the intermediate profit groups. As is true concerning the item of age, Table III shows very little difference in size for the fourth and fifth profit groups, which may be due to the difficulty of stating whether a certain investment just equals or excels another investment in profit. Or it may be an indication that beyond an optimum size, dormitories begin to lose money.

ROOM RATES

As might be expected, Table II reveals that the profitableness of dormitories varies with the room rates received. The 86 dormitories reporting room rates below \$2.00 per week showed a profit index of 2.82 while the 79 dormitories charging \$2.00 per week or

more had an index of 3.24. In Table III, the average weekly rate to students in dormitories that regularly lost money was reported to be \$1.85, with consistent increases in each of the higher profit brackets. As is true with regard to each of the other factors already mentioned, this average rental per week does not mean that there were not exceptional cases in each group. For example, four of the ten cases listed in the first group charged room rents of more than \$2.00, and two of them charged \$2.75, while in the fifth group seven of the 15 dormitories reporting charged less than \$2.00 and two of them charged as low as \$1.50.

REQUIRED RESIDENCE

As pointed out above, in addition to the rate of room rent charged per week, two types of data which may be said to be administrative in nature are the extent of dormitory occupancy and the number of colleges that require student residence in dormitories. The factor of dormitory occupancy appears to be relatively unimportant, because most dormitories were reported full to capacity, but it can be seen in the tables that these dormitories requiring student residence produced higher profits than those that did not.

Table II indicates that the 85 dormitories requiring residence had a profit index of 3.31 while the 38 that did not have a requirement had an index of 2.74. From Table III it can be seen that, while residence requirements were more rigid in girls' dormitories than in boys' dormitories, in both cases more institutions on the higher profit levels required residence than did on the lower profit level. Colleges reporting dormitories that excelled other investments in profits all required residence for girls, and six of the seven reporting in that bracket required residence for boys. The requirement may have influenced profit by assisting in keeping the dormitories filled, or such a requirement may reflect an efficient administration which produces profits in other ways.

COLLEGE LOCATION

The effect of college location on dormitory profit is interesting but not significant. The colleges represented in this study are located in cities ranging in size from 500 in population to approximately 1,000,000. Nearly half of the towns in which the colleges were located ranged from 1,000 to 10,000 in population.

The average size of dormitories in cities of more than 10,000 population was smaller than in the smaller cities, the average capacity for men in larger cities being 78 and in smaller cities, 93. For women, averages in the same order were 71 and 78. In like manner, the average rental cost was smaller in large cities than in smaller cities, ranging from \$2.10 to \$2.16 per week for men, and \$2.18 to \$2.28 per week for women.² The further somewhat astonishing fact is that the index of profit for dormitories in larger cities was smaller than for those in small cities, being 2.73 as compared with 2.19 for men, and 2.96 as compared with 3.22 for women. A possible explanation of the smaller dormitories in the larger cities is that there was less need for housing facilities for students.

When dormitories in the eleven different states were compared by states, the reports indicated that the dormitories of seven Minnesota colleges averaged largest in size, highest in weekly rental, and highest in index of profit, the average size being 112 students, the average rental being \$2.71 per week and the index of profit 3.82 for women's dormitories, and 140, \$2.41 and 3.61 in the same order for men. The second state in average size of dormitory, rate per week, and profit index was Iowa, with 100 women and 115 men as the size of the dormitories, \$2.26, and \$2.12 as the weekly rates, and indices of profit of 3.56, and 3.61 respectively for women and men in the sixteen colleges reporting. The averages for the states ranged down from these figures to an average size of 88 for women and 61 for men, average room rents of \$2.00 for women and \$1.92 for men and indices of profit of 3.00 for women and 1.92 for men.

THE 1945 STUDY

As indicated above, the purpose of the second questionnaire, which was mailed in 1945, was to determine the number of new dormitories erected, the changes in weekly room rents, and the changes in profitableness of dormitories since 1939. To the second questionnaire 66 replies were received. The chief information obtained from these replies was that the profit status of dormitories has changed very little since the earlier study was made. Only two new dormitories have been erected or purchased during the

² These figures are taken from the 1939 study.

period by the colleges reporting. Of the 66 colleges 33 reported increases in weekly rates and none of them reported a decrease. The average increase for women, in the 33 institutions that made such increases was from \$2.17 per week to \$3.06 per week, and the increase for men was from \$1.94 per week to \$2.90 per week.

A careful study of the effect of this increased weekly rental on the reported profits of the dormitories revealed that the colleges that raised dormitory rates did not have any greater average profit from their dormitories in 1945 than they had reported in 1939. Also, peculiar as it may seem, the colleges that did not change their dormitory rates during the six-year period reported the same average of profit that they had reported in the earlier study. It might well be expected that if the colleges that raised the rates on their dormitories did not make an increased profit, those that kept the old rates would show a corresponding decrease in profit.

The explanation, at least in part, for this apparent anomaly is that institutions that did not change their rates were already charging in 1939 an average rental fully as high as the average rates reached in 1945 by the schools that increased their charges. Thus, the average rates reported in 1939 in the no-change schools was \$3.19 per week for women and \$2.92 per week for men, whereas the average rates in 1945 for the schools that increased rates were only \$3.06 for women and \$2.90 for men.

In a similar manner institutions that increased rates during the six-year period were generally those that reported low-rate, low-profit dormitories in the first study. As pointed out above, the average 1939 charges by schools that increased their rates were only \$2.17 per week for women and \$1.94 for men. Table III reveals that dormitories reporting such low rates as these were in the lowest profit groups. Furthermore, a checkup of the reported profits of the dormitories that changed rates, shows that in 1939 their profit index was only 2.39 as compared with 3.21 for those that did not later increase rates.

While it is thus apparent that increases in rates were made in those dormitories where such increases were most needed, the lack of increased profits as a result of those increases is probably also due in some degree to other conditions peculiar to colleges where such dormitories were located. For example, a considerable num-

ber of them were in cities where rising costs together with decreasing occupancy due to war conditions tended to reduce profits. Also, they included many small buildings which may be less efficiently run now than in 1939. It is possible that buildings that were in the no-profit class before the war cannot be made to pay now by merely raising the rates to students.

It is also possible that the dormitories constructed now or immediately after the war might need to charge prohibitive rates in order to pay an equal interest as in 1939 on the new investments with higher construction costs. However, with or without increasing rates, the reduced profits might continue to compare as well as before with the decreased profit that can now be obtained from other investments at the lowered rates of interest now available.

TRENDS IN ORIGINAL FINANCING

Because of the difficulty in finding desirable investments and because of the increased emphasis on suitable facilities for student housing college officials have, in recent years, given increased attention to the investments of college funds in student dormitories. And the matter of profit is not an unimportant consideration. Even though nearly all of those answering the questionnaires stated that they believed investments in dormitories were justified for other than financial reasons, there was a good deal of interest manifested in the profit or loss produced. For this reason an attempt was made in the study to discover trends in original financing of dormitories.

Replies to this question revealed that recent trends have been away from depending on gifts alone and towards the use of college capital funds for dormitory construction. Table IV shows that the 87 dormitories reported as being financed by gifts alone averaged 39 years of age. The 29 that were financed by various combinations of gifts, loans and capital funds averaged 27 years of age and the six dormitories that had been financed by capital funds alone averaged 18 years of age. A further analysis of these figures shows that of the 87 dormitories financed by gifts alone, 24 were erected before 1900, 30 were erected between 1900 and 1915, 26 in the period 1915-1929 inclusive, and seven in the fifteen-year period beginning with 1930. Of the 24 dormitories originally financed by various combinations of gifts, loans and

capital funds, only three were erected before 1900, two in the fifteen-year period 1900-1914 inclusive, 19 in the period 1915-1929 inclusive, and five since 1929. The six dormitories reported as being erected by use of capital funds alone were all built since 1900 and three of them since 1930.

It is thus seen that during the last 15 years fewer dormitories have been financed from gifts alone than in other ways, although financing by gifts is still a very popular method. It is probable

TABLE IV

METHODS OF ORIGINAL FINANCING OF DORMITORIES WITH NUMBER FINANCED BY EACH MANNER IN EACH OF FOUR TIME PERIODS

Method of original financing	Number of dormitories reported built in 1850-1900	Number of dormitories reported built in 1900-1914	Number of dormitories reported built in 1915-1929	Number of dormitories reported built in 1930-1945	Total number	Average age
From gifts alone ...	24	30	26	7	87	39 years
Various combinations of gifts, loans and capital funds	3	2	19	5	29	27 years
Capital funds alone	0	3	0	3	6	18 years

This table indicates the trends in original financing of 117 dormitories, showing the number financed in each manner in four age groups. The table shows trends are towards investing college capital funds.

that these figures would be even more convincing if full reports could have been received. The dormitories concerning which full information was received were usually the ones more recently built. No information on the item of age could be obtained concerning 70 dormitories, most of which were very old. It is probable that the average age of dormitories financed by gifts alone would be increased beyond the 39 years mentioned above if all such institutions were included.

There is no thought of suggesting that financing by capital funds alone is more or less desirable than other methods, but merely to state the facts as disclosed by the study. Perhaps the

relative increase in the number of dormitories financed in this manner is due at least in part to the decreasing number of large contributions for benevolent purposes, while school officials recognize the necessity for suitable housing for students. It may also be due to the realization as revealed in this study that under optimum conditions and with efficient management dormitories may be made to pay their own way and provide a profit equal to, if not better than, that of other investments.

One objection to the use of capital funds for dormitory construction mentioned in several replies was the necessity for using profits from such investments to repay capital funds, instead of to pay college expenses. This objection is based on the theory that college funds should never be used to finance college buildings of any kind, or at least, when used should be returned as soon as possible. This reasoning fails to distinguish between income- and non-income-properties. Evidently a growing number of college officials believe that college capital funds are well invested in profitable college buildings and that they do not need to be reconverted into capital as long as they pay suitable returns.

But the point on which there was the greatest agreement was regarding the value of dormitories from the standpoint of service. It was generally agreed that expenditures for dormitories are justified even if they do not make a financial profit. This statement was made regarding "non-profit" as well as highly profitable dormitories. Only one reply said "no" to this question. It thus becomes apparent that college officials favor a continued program of dormitory construction because of the educational, social and administrative value of such buildings and regardless of the method of financing necessary for their erection and equipment.

CONCLUSIONS

I. Nearly two thirds of the 182 dormitories reported were said to pay at least their own way and a small profit in addition. About one third were said to produce a profit equal to or better than that from other investments.

II. The profitableness was about the same for men's and women's dormitories.

III. The newer dormitories were consistently more profitable than the old dormitories.

IV. The size of dormitories increased with the degree of profitability so that dormitories averaging 35 students in size regularly lost money, and those averaging 123 students made profits that excelled those of other investments. The average size of dormitories that just made a small profit was 90 students.

V. The profit of dormitories appears to have increased with the rate charged per week up to a maximum of \$2.62 per week, at which point the dormitories excelled other types of investments. It is worth noting here that reported profits from dormitories charging an average of \$2.62 per week was greater than from dormitories charging an average of \$2.76 per week.

VI. While colleges were usually more strict in requiring that girls reside in dormitories, the fact is that those colleges requiring residence for both sexes reported consistently higher profits in proportion to the amount of residence required, up to capacity of dormitories.

VII. The trend in original financing of dormitories is away from financing by gifts alone, and towards financing by loans and capital funds of the college.

VIII. All except one person replied that dormitories justified their expense even if they were not profitable financially.

IX. The studies seemed to indicate that the growing trend towards financing dormitories by bonding or by the investment of college capital funds is due to (1) a general appreciation of the importance of suitable housing for students, (2) the decreasing number of large gifts for benevolent purposes, and (3) the realization that such expenditures can be made to produce a profit comparable with other investments of the college.

X. The second study tended to confirm the conclusions of the first.

SELECTING AND HOLDING TOP NOTCH FACULTY MEMBERS

J. H. REYNOLDS

PRESIDENT EMERITUS, HENDRIX COLLEGE

THE institution considered is a standard senior college, approved by standardizing bodies. It pays reasonable salaries. These salaries are not high, probably about \$3,600 for full professors. Just now owing to the low purchasing power of money, the salary is about seventy-five per cent of normal. Professors face difficulties in solving their financial problems because money now is worth about seventy-five cents on the dollar. If inflation increases college officers will suffer in proportion. Happily the government's anti-inflation policy promises to protect the nation against further losses by inflation. The income of colleges does not move up and down with the purchasing power of money.

Another factor will enter into the selection of college teachers for the next few years—the returning armed forces. Some of these men were taken out of American colleges. The war has put a premium on college training and the war will be followed by an increase in college students drawn from the country and the armed forces. Of course the competition of commerce, industry and business will tend to hold college attendance to a lower level. Even many of the soldiers formerly in college will be diverted from returning to college by the strong pull of industry and commerce. But the demands of the returning service men for college training will more than balance the numbers drawn off by the imperious calls of industry.

College teachers will probably have to bear a heavy strain in endeavoring to meet the abnormal and varied demands of students calling for courses in practical, utilitarian, as well as cultural subjects. Moreover this situation means a variety of college students for a few years and a greater strain on college teachers to adapt themselves to an abnormal student body. The colleges and their staffs will be taxed to their utmost to satisfy the demands upon them. High pay in industry and business will make inroads on the number of college teachers.

SCHOLARSHIP AND CHARACTER

College presidents will inquire into the scholarship and character of candidates for college positions. A man lacking these qualifications is not prepared for a college teacher. The Christian religion furnishes the moral basis for American civilization. College presidents will not meet their duty to students if they employ men who do not qualify in both character and scholarship. These elements will develop in students capacity to think and for high standards of moral life.

YOUNG MEN AS TEACHERS

The president will seek young men in filling teaching positions. Students need the touch and inspiration of young scholars in the faculty. In exceptional cases the president will select the maturity of age and experience in filling positions.

CANDIDATES TO VISIT THE COLLEGE

Nothing will take the place of a visit to the college by candidates. The president's trip to other colleges is not so valuable as the candidate's visit to the college where he is seeking employment. He comes in contact with the institution, its laboratories and library. This enables him to judge whether he wants to cast his lot there or not. It gives the president an opportunity to get the judgment of his own staff, especially of the dean and staff committee. The wise president seeks the counsel of his staff. His opinion is only one. The wisdom of his final decision should represent the collective judgment of a committee of the faculty and of the president with whom the new man will work. It is probably unwise to reduce this principle to a written requirement. The spirit and not the law should control.

The president will seek the background in both family and college work of the proposed new member of his staff. Written statements from officers where he has worked may be sufficient. If additional information is needed the president or dean may make a personal visit to the institution where the candidate has served.

The president is the official spokesman and representative of his college. He guides his trustees in their educational aims. In all educational matters his counsel is followed. He is the educa-

tional expert of the Board and its members will always seek his guidance in matters of educational policy. The opinion and suggestions of men in other walks will merely be supplemental to the counsel of the president. This principle is fundamental in a wisely ordered college.

IF I WERE A UNIVERSITY PRESIDENT

HAROLD R. NISSLEY

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IT MAY seem presumptuous for an efficiency engineer in an electrical manufacturing company to tell a group of university administrators how to perform their jobs better. But 16 of my 28 working years have been spent in three state universities working under five presidents. So I believe I speak with something more than a naive layman's voice. The following ideas, then, represent the best ideas of five university presidents plus a few of my own as a business counselor for a going business concern.

KEEP SALARIES SECRET

Despite the practice of most business firms to treat office salaries as confidential, many university faculties know within a week after raises have been given—to whom and how much. The “didn’t gets” are happy up to the time they hear about the “did gets”; then all hell breaks loose.

In one state university where I taught, accompanying the first pay check every year was a notice by the president saying that a person's salary was a highly personal matter and should not be discussed with any others; moreover, it was a university policy to treat these matters as confidential. Now, anyone who was really curious could have written to the state treasurer and learned the salary story about any or all of the faculty; but human inertia is frequently greater than human curiosity. Although I officed with a man for two years under these conditions, neither he nor I knew what the other's salary was. And I have a feeling that we were both happier because of it.

GET OBJECTIVE EFFICIENCY SCALES OF PROFESSORS

Suppose a young Ph.D. gets a job in an old church school under a department head who has done nothing but teach in that same school for 20 years. Suppose this neophyte likes to drink, swear, dance, and go out with the ladies (all with moderation and discretion). A department head of the strait-laced type could very well bias a president to such an extent that this fellow would be

discouraged to stay on at the end of his first or second year. (But if the truth were known, his real offense was in getting an article published his first year—the only one the department has published in 20 years.)

To gain objective slants on the efficiency of college professors, several techniques are available. One of these is the annual professor popularity contest in which students vote for their favorite professor. Although I have seen the shortcomings to such a campus stunt, it does smoke out a lot of dry rot.

Another plan is that of sending out a questionnaire to the alumni, getting their choice of professor in (a) the freshman year, (b) the sophomore year, etc. A list of five or ten professor qualities might be used in this test. Or, to make the plan very simple, merely ask the alumnus which professor in each of the above years contributed most to his present well-being.¹ Statistical techniques (weighting, etc.) might be applied to the final results so as to put everyone on a par.

Of course a president must be prepared to say "No" to a popular professor who wants to become a department head and who would rule the other members of his department with an iron fist while carrying on the crusade for democracy in the classroom.

Here again, secrecy probably should surround the results of such an investigation. The ranking of individual members should be made known to them; but they should not know where other members of the faculty stand. A dean might have the ranking for his college, and a department head for his department; but a dean or a department head would not know the ranking of people outside their provinces.²

¹ My Scotch wife has said she did not learn much English from Dr. Cunningham; but he introduced so many philosophical ideas in his course that it stands out as being one of the best she took during her college career.

² Instead of using the typical question on the final examination, "Critique this course from the point of view of (a) content, (b) textbook, and (c) presentation," I followed a plan of unsigned questionnaires ("disguise your handwriting and change pencils or pens"). I was blushing amazed at the frankness of students when wholly uninhibited. The results of these questionnaires helped greatly in perfecting the 30 courses I taught in a 16-year period.

An administrator might encourage his faculty to get objective slants on themselves by suggesting they get students to fill in such questionnaires on examination days. Thus a president or a dean could deftly throw much of

ENCOURAGE ANNUAL PROGRESS REPORTS

Every department head and dean should be encouraged to turn out annual progress reports which would be widely circulated. Faculty members should turn into their department heads reports of their departmental, college and university contributions for the year. These individual reports would be combined into a departmental report which would be circulated among the members and a copy given to the dean and to the president. Such a report might form the basis of a larger one for the president and the board (a dean's progress report).

Thus, everyone is made aware that an annual audit of professional improvement and contributions will be made. The drones will become less viscous. And the reports will form a rational basis for recommending increases in salary and rank. Such a formal annual review will take a lot of time and there will be a lot of resistance to it; but it will serve as a good tonic for everyone. Finally, the true scholars will have an opportunity of bringing their accomplishments to the attention of others on an equal basis with the promoters.

CONTROL ARTIFICIAL PROFESSOR POPULARITY BY
CONTROLLING GRADES

Occasionally some ambitious (usually young) professor tries to run a Yale university all by himself at "Paducah" College; the result is he becomes *persona non grata* with the students and ridiculous in the eyes of superiors and colleagues. By far the more common result of uncontrolled grading is the upgrading of everyone until grades lose their significance—until the "A" student from Paducah goes East to do graduate work and finds it difficult to compete with the "C" student from Oberlin or Miami.

At least one institution to my knowledge goes so far as to limit the number of "A's" a professor may give during a semester (7%); no professor may give out more than 22% "B's." I believe a more subtle plan can be used for greater effectiveness—professional public opinion. During the final examination week, a grade distribution sheet of professors' grades should be given

the burden of any constructive criticism he might have onto the people most willing to give it (the students)—the same people from whom he has received many of his ideas about his professors.

to each professor with a note pointing out what normal distribution is but giving the professor perfect freedom in deviating from normal when he believes (rationalizes) that his students are smarter than average.

ABANDON AUTOMATIC INCREASES

Any university that has a system of automatic increases after a trial period (two or three years) will find itself loaded with men and women who are too good to dismiss and too poor to keep. The greatest financial motivation comes not in the promise of unconditional future rewards but from the uncertainty of future rewards—the uncertainty having a direct bearing on the rate of professional growth.

I worked at one university where time was the chief factor in the salary status of those on the faculty. The result was the highest paying jobs were held by the smallest contributors to the sum total. Indeed, it would be no exaggeration to say that many of the people in the upper 10 per cent salary brackets in this university would find it difficult to get jobs elsewhere at half their present salaries.

ABANDON PERMANENT TENURE

Many universities have their faculties on a nine months' contract basis. This is to protect the university if it wishes to dismiss a man for incompetence or other *good* reason. It will be a victory in American higher education when all universities adopt this rule.

But this rule is not solely for the protection of the university. It is for the protection of the professor as well. Without it a university may find itself filled with pay-check drawers—men and women who find it an effort to meet classes, much less to contribute to the university or to the student. When that happens the university is not in a good position to raise money. And who suffers more than the professor when a university cannot raise money? Moreover, regardless of how indifferent a group of men become, there will always be some who do care—some who are willing to keep on fighting until the last; this means, then, that the people who are really worth saving are the ones who are carrying the senile members on their shoulders.

SET UP AN ADEQUATE RETIREMENT PLAN

Most university presidents will agree that a good pension plan is highly desirable. If university presidents would crusade for this badly needed type of old age faculty provision, something might come of it. But the advantages must first be pointed out to trustees and legislators and contributors. Early retirement of premature senile professors would be a happy way of solving a vexing university problem. Moreover, an adequate retirement plan would encourage older efficient scholars to remain at their posts instead of succumbing to eastern offers. Finally, a good pension plan would keep retired professors from performing the sort of menial jobs I have seen some of them perform after they have reached the retirement age—jobs which reflected greatly on the prestige of the university.

Like new buildings or new equipment, if a president really wanted a sound pension plan that at least approached a subsistence level, he could get it. But the intense desire must be there first. And the reasons are so many for having an adequate plan that it is surprising that more universities do not have one—good sound business reasons that involve efficient operation.

GET OUTSIDE AUDITS AT LEAST ONCE EVERY THREE YEARS

A university president would find his problems much simplified if he sought the advice of professional consulting firms. Every private corporation in America of any account has a financial audit at least once a year, despite its own efficient corps of accountants. Many companies call in specialized electrical, mechanical, chemical or industrial engineering firms to supplement the work of their own engineering staffs. Despite the high cost of such professional engineering service (around \$100 per man-day), these companies believe they are getting their money's worth (most consulting firms for the past three years have had more business than they can take care of). At least one firm I know of, has a full-time outside consultant on its staff—a firm employing 32,000 people and operating plants all over the world.

Not all of the brain children of a university president will be endorsed by an outside firm of engineers or accountants. But this is a good thing; surely a university head would welcome objective

thinking that will prevent him from making a big blunder. In most cases, however, the ideas of the president will be enlarged and perfected by an outside firm. With the approval of these professional consultants, a president should be able to sell his board more easily than he can at present. Indeed, I would first sell the board on the idea of an outside personnel and plant audit (letting them pick their own consultants) and then have the consultants come in and sell the board!

Many a president has inherited an incongruous salary structure from a predecessor. An administrator could meet this situation squarely and start taking away here and adding there. But he would probably end up in a tangled mess. First he must get the facts—salaries in relation to services rendered. Where can he get these facts best? From an outside set of specialists (Columbia, Chicago, an engineering consulting firm, etc.).³ Then it may be inept to slice any salaries; but after an objective study by an outside body of men, he can at least know the people upon whom to concentrate the salary increases for the next three years.

And to show concretely how such specialized services really pay off, I recall the annual power bill of one university where I worked (around \$10,000 a year). Because I had written a Master's dissertation on illumination in offices and factories, I was interested in lighting cost and efficiency. I estimated this university could save \$6,000 a year on its lighting by some changes, the cost of which could be absorbed in the first year's savings. And what is just as important, the resulting lighting system would be superior from a seeing standpoint. An outside engineering firm would have included this one idea along with dozens of others which I did not see and thereby have saved the university several times their fee—and given the university a higher level of operating and human efficiency.

ABANDON SUMMER SCHOOL CONTRACTS TO REGULAR STAFF MEMBERS

Too many universities have encouraged their professors to go

³ Don't let any president kid himself into believing he can always get the facts—objective facts—on his own campus. If he should entertain any such ideas, he might try to explain some of the incongruous personnel groupings in his college or university. From the under side, I have seen some of the slickest political deals that have fooled presidents and boards (and I don't believe I am unusually skeptical).

to seed by offering them summer school contracts. There is no better way that I know of to develop intellectual senility than having a man teach 11 months a year, year after year. Ohio State University and the University of Chicago abandoned four quarters' teaching years ago. Now a man at either of these institutions may go fishing during his quarter's free time, teach at some other institution, write a book, or do anything else; but doing something else except teach where he has been teaching, will equip him to do a better professional job than teaching "around the clock" at his home institution.⁴

And strange as it may seem, such a ruling will have a beneficial financial effect on the faculty members. In those institutions where faculty members are given summer school contracts, the total yearly earnings are always quoted when raises come up for consideration. One good man who was disturbed about his \$3200 nine months' salary was told by the president that his \$4200 a *year* as an economist was not too bad compared with salaries in other institutions (a sister state university was paying \$4200 for nine months of work; in other words, this man was in a way contributing an extra 11 weeks of work for which he thought he was receiving an extra \$1000!).

From the point of view of the university and the professor, then, summer school teaching at the old stand should be discouraged.

It is hoped that no president will attempt to railroad through any of the foregoing ideas. The best university president I ever worked under would frankly present any of these ideas to his faculty and then appoint committees to explore them further. Regardless, though, how these ideas are approached, it is hoped that these nine admonitions or rules of administrative conduct will aid in the direction of universities through the period ahead—a period which will be quite as difficult as the totally different period of the thirties.

⁴ For a further discussion of the stimulating effect of diversified summer employment for college professors, the reader is referred to my article, "Exchange Professorship Idea Applied to Commercial Positions" in the July, 1940, issue of *The Journal of Marketing*.

REGIONAL PRODUCTION AND EMPLOYMENT OF PH.D. GRADUATES

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MANY educators believe that graduate schools encourage an unwholesome amount of educational in-breeding and insularity through their policies of recruitment and placement. In addition, there is a commonly held conception that certain geographic regions are primarily producers of persons with doctorates while other regions are primarily consumers. This article presents information which sheds factual light upon regional production and employment of the Ph.D. graduates.

The data here presented were collected as a part of a larger study of Ph.D. programs in the United States and the reader should turn to the report of the complete study for a detailed treatment of the methodology employed.¹ These data concern 22,509 persons who earned the Ph.D. degree between 1930 and 1940 and were still living in 1940. All the Ph.D. graduates of 94 of the 96 institutions granting the Ph.D. degree in the decade named are included.²

Table I, which presents the data upon which this article is based, is read as follows: during the 1930's, ten universities in the census region of New England produced 2,065 Ph.D. graduates and employed 1,323 such persons from among those educated by all of the 94 institutions throughout the United States. It trained 582 or 44 per cent of the group it employed and secured the remaining 741 or 56 per cent from elsewhere. The New England states together employed 64 per cent as many Ph.D. recipients as they educated, but only 28 per cent of those to whom they actually awarded degrees during the decade. It must be held in mind that the figures for this region are slightly distorted by the absence of Harvard University from the tabulations. To a lesser extent the same is true for the east-north-central region

¹ Ernest V. Hollis, *Toward Improving Ph.D. Programs*. (Washington: American Council on Education, 1945) Chapter II.

² Not included are Ph.D. graduates of Harvard (1,371 persons) and the University of Illinois (972 persons). Also not considered are earners of the Ed.D. and other doctoral degrees.

TABLE I
SOURCES OF PH.D. DEGREES CONFERRED, 1930-31 TO 1939-40, AND LOCATION OF LIVING RECIPIENTS,
AS OF SEPTEMBER, 1940; BY REGIONS*

Region	Number of institutions conferring degree	Number of persons receiving degree	Decade's recipients of degree employed in region September, 1940						Ratio of total employment to total production (percentage column 4 is of column 3)	Ratio of employment of Ph.D. recipients educated in region to total production (percentage column 5 is of column 3)
			Total number	Trained in same region		Trained in other regions				
				No.	%	No.	%			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
New England ^a	10	2,065	1,323	582	44.0	741	56.0	64.1	28.2	
Middle Atlantic	23	6,460	5,198	3,272	62.9	1,926	37.1	80.5	50.7	
East North Central ^a	15	6,156	4,096	2,488	60.7	1,608	39.3	66.5	40.4	
West North Central	10	2,709	1,784	850	47.6	934	52.4	65.9	31.4	
South Atlantic	13	2,027	3,028	860	28.4	2,168	71.6	149.4	42.4	
East South Central	5	478	851	197	23.1	654	76.9	178.0	41.2	
West South Central	5	426	1,320	307	23.3	1,013	76.7	309.9	72.1	
Mountain	3	153	586	44	7.5	542	92.5	383.0	28.8	
Pacific	10	2,035	1,590	957	60.2	633	39.8	78.1	47.0	

* Reports missing from Harvard University and the University of Illinois.

because the University of Illinois is not included. In general, the table makes evident the degree to which each of the nine regions used by the United States census is dependent on itself or on other regions for the education of its scholarly personnel. Column 10 provides a rough though oversimplified index of the relative tendency to employ the "home grown" product.

A few observations may be offered in this connection. It will be seen from column 9 that in five regions production exceeded employment, namely (in descending order) New England, the west-north-central, east-north-central, Pacific, and middle Atlantic regions. But the tendencies of these areas to fill their vacancies with their own graduates varied markedly. At one extreme, the middle Atlantic, Pacific, and east-north-central regions employed (column 10) 51, 47, and 40 per cent, respectively, of the Ph.D.'s they awarded during the decade, and these constituted (column 6) 63, 60, and 61 per cent of all representatives of this particular crop whom they had absorbed by the close of the period. At the other end of the scale New England, which actually led the regions in the degree to which it produced more young doctors than it employed, and the west-north-central region showed a decidedly different pattern. They employed only 28 and 31 per cent, respectively, of their own product of the thirties, and these accounted for but 44 and 48 per cent of all the young doctors that they did absorb.

There are also interesting contrasts in the case of the four regions that brought in more young Ph.D. recipients than they educated. These in descending order of the ratio of employment to production (column 9) were the mountain, west-south-central, east-south-central, and south Atlantic regions. None of these, of course, was in a position to fill its vacancies largely with its own graduates, and none did (column 6). But the degree to which the effort was made varied sharply. The west-south-central region, for example, absorbed a larger proportion of its own product than any other, 72 per cent (column 10). The south Atlantic and east-south-central regions retained a percentage (42 and 41, respectively) comparable to that of the over-producing regions that were most retentive. The mountain region, whose ratio of production to employment was the slightest of all, absorbed only 29 per cent of its own young doctors of the decade; this was

almost as small a proportion as in the case of New England where production most exceeded the home capacity to absorb, as far as this decade's output is concerned.

The data presented in Table I were further analyzed to show the same facts for individual states as are shown for census regions, and this analysis affords some evidence of the tendency or lack of tendency toward "in-breeding."³ For instance, Wisconsin, Iowa, Maryland, Connecticut, New York and California drew on their region's doctoral graduates for the decade to the extent of from 95 to 67 per cent of the number they employed. When the proportions are calculated, however, for the degree to which each of these six employed young doctors educated in the same *state*, then the descending rank order becomes as follows: California (62 per cent), New York (58), Wisconsin (51), Connecticut (51), Iowa (49) and Maryland (34). This seems to indicate that at least California and New York, and possibly also Wisconsin, Connecticut and Iowa, may be employing more of the "home grown" product than is socially altogether healthy. The situation in the last three states is accentuated by the fact that doctoral graduates were educated at not more than two or three institutions within the state. If the facts for the University of Illinois could be added to those for the other three institutions of that state, it is possible that Illinois would be counted among the states drawing rather too heavily on their own product.

The location of prestige institutions within a state, and especially state universities with their low costs to residents, goes far to account for the situation disclosed. The area of recruitment is closely related to the area of effective placement; many of those among our universities that consider themselves national in scope place a large proportion of their Ph.D. recipients within the region in which they are located. At the other extreme, fifteen states did not themselves award the doctorate to a single one of the 1,555 individuals they together employed from among the decade's doctoral output. However, on the whole, there is evidence that a considerable degree of cross-fertilization obtains in high academic and other scholarly circles in the several states. In approximately 70 per cent of the states, including the District of

³ For the figures upon which the following paragraphs are based see E. V. Hollis, *op. cit.*, pp. 43-45.

Columbia, more than half of the decade's doctors employed had degrees from outside the home region. In half of the states the proportion was above 75 per cent. In more than half of the states between thirty and fifty different universities granted the "foreign" degrees, and in nine cases there were more than fifty universities involved.

It should of course not be inferred that the geographic mobility of the persons employed was as great as their academic mobility. The state in which they were employed was probably the home base for most of the group. This fact reduces the probable amount of cultural cross-fertilization somewhat, except for the period of training, but it assures the state and region a majority of young doctoral graduates who understand local conditions and mores. The data for this particular decade show more evidence of desirable mutual stimulation than of unhealthy cultural inbreeding, but this generalization should not be used to cover up the known provincialism of particular institutions. And again it must be remembered that the above figures cover only part of the total situation. For instance, the circumstance that three of the New England states failed to employ any of the decade's Ph.D. graduates trained in that region does not by any means preclude the possibility that they called to their universities older persons and established scholars who had received their degrees in New England before 1931. Another possibility is that the home situation had reached such a degree of saturation with local scholars that a deliberate attempt was made during the decade to go outside the region. The information collected for this study has no light to throw on questions such as these.

Because of these limitations of the data the reader is warned not to make comparisons among the several states and regions unless he has more facts at his disposal. Not only do such factors as relative wealth, size of population and the number of possible positions of Ph.D. caliber locally available enter into the picture, but also the less tangible factors of local policy. One state may be more particular than another about the academic standing of museum, laboratory, or school personnel, and able to back its preference with adequate salary schedules. Some universities may deliberately engage a steady stream of younger persons, expecting a high turnover and believing that in this way they are

likely to get the highest value out of the money they have to spend. Others may not be able to hold scholars as soon as they achieve more than local reputations and so be forced to look only to younger men. Still other universities may prefer to wait until a doctoral graduate has established himself before calling him to their faculties. And others may follow some combination of these procedures. For such reasons it is hazardous to make comparisons without knowing at least the total employment picture for the institutions here in question for the ten years studied.

POSTWAR MUSIC INSTRUCTION IN COLLEGES

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IN January, a committee of the Music Teachers National Association sent inquiry blanks to the executive officers of departments of music in 135 universities and colleges. The purpose was to learn what steps were being taken to meet postwar conditions and to get information on governmental projects for the education of returning service men and women. We wanted to know how many institutions had special committees for postwar planning and whether or not music was represented on them. We hoped to gather data on curricular changes, accelerated schedules and entrance and degree requirements.

A variety of institutions was included. Liberal arts colleges predominated with state universities also well represented. A few state teachers colleges and denominational schools of higher learning rounded out the list. The geographical distribution of inquiry and response was as follows:

<i>Section</i>	<i>No. included</i>	<i>No. responding</i>
New England	21	13
Mid-Atlantic	29	16
Middle West	39	17
Southeast	18	12
South	13	7
Southwest	3	1
West	12	6
Totals	135	72

The average of response was something over 50 per cent, a very satisfactory result in these times.

THE POSTWAR SITUATION AND GOVERNMENT POLICY

Americans are notoriously optimistic; even the present world crisis has not affected too strongly our faith in the future. Shaken as they are by the demands of the military training programs, our colleges are, in the main, fairly confident of coming through minus any permanent wounds. We regard our educational institutions as tough enough to ride out this storm in spite of its un-

precedented extent and violence. Not one of those responding to this inquiry expressed any deep-seated concern about the future of the fine arts. In fact, some of the older executive officers were inclined to look upon the coming period as they did upon the years following 1918. One head of an eastern college of fine arts wrote: "I went through all this in World War I. By 1921-23 the colleges were all back on the old road which was broad, well-built and led somewhere." Such a view is comforting and yet it does not seem wholly apt to draw a parallel with World War I. President Conant of Harvard in his Report of January 1, 1944, puts it this way, "The academic world will have to recover from a shock of a severity not before experienced in our history. At the time of the Civil War, the universities were so little developed as to provide no basis for comparison, and our participation in the first World War was of relatively short duration." Later in the same Report he states: "For many months, perhaps several years, we shall have to provide for the enrolment of discharged veterans at fairly frequent intervals; and this state of affairs may well last from three to six years after the end of the war, for it is clear that the large numbers of troops overseas cannot return to the United States all at once." The postwar period of adjustment will stretch out well beyond any equivalent of 1918-23. Our music faculties may have to plan, and plan again, in the coming decade.

ACCELERATED SCHEDULES

Some educators have felt that the ready adoption of accelerated year-round programs, and their successful operation in some instances, offer proof that we ought to continue such schedules permanently. There was a fairly even division on this point in the inquiry. With varying degrees of vehemence, 26 institutions expressed opposition, and 20 were for continued acceleration either in whole or in part. The division did not run along geographical lines or according to types of college. Oberlin, for example, has voted already to remain accelerated in all departments for at least two years after the war's end. Middlebury would accelerate but on a different basis than now; Syracuse, the University of Redlands, Hobart and Catawba favor it only during the rehabilitation period; and Wisconsin looks upon it as only a

possibility. Cornell is among the larger group disinclined to the idea, at least in so far as the Division of Arts and Sciences is concerned. Ranged on this side are Michigan, California, Nebraska, Southern Methodist, Columbia, Rochester, Oklahoma A & M, Park, Hunter, Smith, Boston University, the New England Conservatory, Brown and Harvard.

POSTWAR CHANGES IN CURRICULUM

In 61 of the 72 colleges covered, there is a committee working on postwar plans with special reference to the curriculum. In only 31 of the 61 is music directly represented on the committee. Musicians may be pardoned if they shun administrative duties but it remains a fact that music more often loses out on a college campus because of insufficient integration with the rest of the institution than for lack of suitable offerings or student interest.

The questionnaire revealed no sentiment favorable to federal control of the curriculum in the postwar period or at any time. As many as 25 colleges definitely stated that they did not expect any federal influence even though returning service people would study under a government-financed plan. Only eight admitted the possibility of federal domination to a certain extent. This part of the questionnaire was the one most frequently avoided. It was obvious that many either had not been able to keep in touch with developments or were frankly puzzled by them. The correspondent from Alabama College had a positive view. "This section of the country, as you doubtless realize, is little interested in government control." Vassar answered: "No prophecy is offered but federal control, if exercised, would be a calamity." No federal control is anticipated by Idaho "in so far as curriculum or methods are concerned" but "there will probably be some control exercised in the courses designed for returning service men." Southwestern in Memphis spoke feelingly in these words: "None, with us, we hope." At Wesleyan, "it is not expected that the federal influence will be great. Perhaps the wish is father to the thought." The faculty "greatly dislike the idea." California doubts that the government will "play a determining part in the general curriculum." Furman University returned this comment: "Some fear has been expressed that the government might control education. Government control could conceivably be more enlightened than some other kinds."

Tufts College has a good word for the present government training program: "Under federal control, as thus far experienced, the regular offerings have been made and, in Appreciation, the largest-ever enrolment has resulted." Tufts, it may be added, is now a Navy college. Optimism is reflected in the statement from Denison University: "If the realization of the Navy that general education is important for leadership is a basis for policy making, there will be a re-emphasis on liberal education." The Dean of the School of Music at Howard University sums up well the opinions gathered. He writes: "Signs already point strongly to federal and or state patronage in the field of music. I don't think we can determine yet how extensive such control may be. We can only hope that the future of music will not be a matter of political expediency."

If plans outlined in this inquiry come to maturity, there will be many altered curricula throughout the country in the coming years. Some of the most interesting statements of the entire inquiry came to light in this connection. There were 24 colleges contemplating changes in course offerings. Of these, 16 are in the direction of expansion. On all sides come demands that music be more widely experienced throughout every section of the student body. The report from Columbia is striking in this respect: "It is planned to give greater emphasis to the humanities and to offer a newly organized course in music to be required of candidates for the A.B. degree." At Minnesota the tendency is to require all students to take a course in humanities which includes music and art, or participate in music, drama, or dance organizations. Augustana College is to ask that four hours in music or art be required; and Brown hopes to return music to a required group. The University of Washington sees a movement towards a few "area" courses such as one on The Arts and Civilization which would involve discussion groups and bring larger numbers of students into contact with actual music. Michigan's music faculty is reviewing its entire curriculum with the intention of making improvements in instructional methods. Technics which have proved themselves in the Armed Services will be embodied. A Committee of the Senate of the University of Pittsburgh has a report, "The University and Postwar Education," which broadly surveys the curriculum in the light of student needs. At Mis-

souri, there is a prospect of establishing the Bachelor of Music degree; Colby and Haverford are hopeful of enlarging their offerings to make possible a major concentration; and Oklahoma A & M is about to provide the B.A. degree with a music major.

The University of Idaho anticipates a larger number of courses. The Fine Arts Committee is working towards an enlarged post-war program—including plans for a new building. In this same reply we read: "Already we have experienced a greatly increased enrolment in applied music—students who are studying simply for the joy that music brings them." Hunter College also mentions expansion of applied music and "vocational inlays." Oberlin refers to the possibility of new vocational courses. The correspondent from Furman University Woman's College thinks that education in all fields, including music, will tend to be more vocational. At Connecticut College, a new flat tuition fee to cover all expenses including applied music and practice fees has been adopted. At Princeton, the emphasis will be on the non-vocational, fundamental, imaginative elements. Delaware moves towards more humanities, "especially for engineers and chemists." The department at Catawba is enlarging with "emphasis on music appreciation on all levels." A faculty committee at Knox is making an exhaustive investigation of the entire curriculum.

Only three replies gave any prominence to new mechanical aids in instruction. These were Michigan, Minnesota and Brown. At the latter institution, filmed scores have been shown to classes for a number of years, making possible simultaneous auditory and visual experience. The problem is to get apparatus capable of casting a larger, brighter image suitable for larger classes.

Fifteen responses stressed the importance of extra-curricular music. At Syracuse, the university administration is urging greater participation of all students in art, music and drama. This form of activity, to quote from the Stephens College report, is "the only music for the great majority of people." Minnesota "aims to stress extra-curricular music very much" and bring in a large percentage of the student body. Minnesota State Teachers College reports a considerable amount of musical participation and adds: "The academic folks think we have too much." Two responses questioned this type of education. California said: "The advantages of these activities can be had only by a sur-

render of the values of academic study. These have to be weighed as the occasion suggests." An administrative report at Knox also raised doubts regarding musical organizations.

A timely subject is that of the closer integration of school and college music. In all too few instances has it really been accomplished. The reply of the University of Rochester prophesies a re-evaluation of high school requirements with a view to encouraging a more ample music program in all preparatory schools. Howard University has as one of its aims the "achievement of a greater unity with the secondary and primary system." As soon as the war ends, the College of William and Mary expects "to foster music in schools of the state." Minnesota State Teachers College pleads for a higher requirement of high school music, particularly in ear-training and fundamentals. This college finds evidence of good ensemble experience and not too much else. California has a committee on affiliation with the schools and Knox meets regularly with the superintendent of schools and the high school principal in the community where the college is located. First steps have been taken to draw together the school curriculum in the small state of Rhode Island with that of Brown University.

One more miscellaneous item seems worth passing on, even if, for the moment, it serves merely to mystify. From the Chief of the Music Section of the Army Special Services School at Washington and Lee University comes this statement: "I have been appointed by authorities in Washington to act on a committee to prepare postwar national and international music programs. I am not in a position to release this information at this time."

Our findings show that college music, generally, is in a healthy state and that the profession is not only aware of its postwar opportunities but planning with enthusiasm to meet them.

GROWTH THROUGH INDIVIDUALIZED CURRICULA IN FRENCH

MELVA LIND

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IN LIGHT of the intense re-appraisal of educational values in progress today throughout the United States, and the current American quest for the curricular Golden Mean, Mount Holyoke College can view with justifiable pleasure its ten-year sponsorship of an experimental course of study, known as the Two-Unit plan. As a privileged tutor on a number of occasions under the auspices of that project, the writer has found it advanced and conservative at one and the same time, rich in the opportunities it offers for mutual growth to student and instructor alike.

The plan was conceived primarily in the interests of pupils endowed with intellectual eagerness and mental maturity. To remain within the group, members must give evidence of seriousness of purpose and sustained progress.

The first semester of the freshman year is considered a probation period. The student attends regular classes, and is expected to do creditable work in English, in two courses that may serve as bases for future units, and in a fourth area preferably within another field. If the work during this trial period definitely lacks promise, in the light of Two-Unit requirements, the student is transferred to the regular college course. Full admission does not, however, imply permanent membership in the group.

A Two-Unit student, released from obligatory attendance at class, chooses two subjects a semester upon which to concentrate her main efforts, and weaves supplementary integrating courses around them. As she develops in understanding, she chooses a field of interest covering a wide area, or a more specialized one. It is expected that her program, although answering individual needs, will be sufficiently wide to ensure general culture. Leisure-time activities and sports receive attention in each curriculum devised.

Any student in the Two-Unit plan may, at the end of the semester, transfer to the regular five-course curriculum. She may qualify for honors and write a dissertation, and is obliged

to take the regular senior comprehensive examination in her major field of interest. While progress is estimated on the basis of reports by the professors, grades are also filed. Regular students who meet the requirements may at any time transfer to the experimental group.

Faculty opinion has always been divided as to the merits and defects of the plan. Eager to evaluate the project on the basis of personal knowledge, the writer was one day delighted to learn from her chief that two students wished to do work in French. One pupil, Laura X, was reported to be exceptionally advanced, talented and artistic. The other, Alice Y, understood scarcely any spoken French, and wrote but little. The head of the department informed the writer that professors were free to accept or reject Two-Unit responsibilities, since the extra stipend in no way compensated for the time or energy expended. The issue was, did she wish to try her hand at experimental teaching or not?

Before deciding, the writer investigated the situation. To her questions, the Director of the group emphasized the flexibility of the units, and stressed the fact that the individual faculty member should, as much as possible, leave the initiative with the pupil, adapting herself in every way to the needs and desires of the student rather than insisting on conformity to a fixed pattern.

Various colleagues, when consulted, expressed differing opinions on instructional procedures. Some professors taught tutorially; others banded Two-Unit students together in small seminar groups; still others urged them to develop reports stressing certain aspects of the material under consideration. These accounts were then delivered in lecture form to classmates enrolled in the regular curriculum, and studying the same general topics. A few instructors expressed disapproval of the plan, stating that on past occasions they had advised prospective candidates to attend the regular class.

By this time the writer had concluded that her lack of experience with the plan need not necessarily prove a deterrent to successful teaching. As a last step however, she consulted with two young sophomore friends enrolled in the project. From them she learned that they regretted a lack of firm professorial guidance their first year. As prospective juniors, they felt their study techniques adequate, but strongly recommended close supervision for freshmen, despite official emphasis on independent work.

Thus counseled and prepared, the writer was ready to shape and direct her initial individualized curricula.

In her first interview with Laura X, she learned that this candidate, although an American, had spent her childhood in Continental schools, at the time her family was stationed abroad. Small wonder that she had found the linguistic ability of her fellow freshmen limited. However gifted these students may have been intrinsically, their achievement in language could not be expected to compete with that of a candidate privileged with a long foreign residence. Unusually attractive in appearance, demure and reserved in behavior, her only expressed desire was that she wished to divide her fifteen semester credits between French and another language. She had followed the basic departmental course in seventeenth century French literature, and saw no objection to continuing work in that period.

The second prospective candidate, Alice Y, although very timid, was more definite in her plans. She realized her deficiencies in French, and wished remedial work in language, yet hoped for guidance in literature too. It was decided that she would follow the writer's course in classicism as an orientation, recite with fellow classmates, and come for an hour of corrective drill six days a week during an initial fortnight, five days a week the following fortnight, etc., until a regular basis of three one-hour tutorials a week had been established.

About a month later, at an informal gathering, casual inquiry was made of the writer as to her Two-Unit arrangement. A brief explanation provoked the remark that such procedure was a waste of time and effort. Since the candidates were studying the same basic period, they might with greater convenience to the instructor, be met once a week together in a class of their own.

Such an arrangement would have violated the writer's interpretation of the plan, and run counter to that personal point of view which she hoped to apply to her Two-Unit teaching. Here was one student who spoke and wrote French approximately on the graduate level, whose foreign experience had left her, in some respects, considerably more mature than most girls her age; the other, modest and retiring as the proverbial violet, had found the transition from an affectionate home environment in a small town to the wider college circle a difficult adjustment. Through inade-

quate preparatory training, her linguistic deficiency in French might truly be described as grave. It is evident that the constellation of problems—academic, personal, social, and emotional—of each student was of such basic divergence that joint consideration in a tutorial class could only produce negative results. Might one not expect in such a learning situation, increased boredom on the one hand, and continuing shy insecurity on the other, two factors that would militate potently against efficient work in the unit under consideration?

The writer asked them to be frank in their evaluations, even when such candor might conceivably cause displeasure, adding, that to be effective, her guidance must spring from full and mutual understanding. This request met with sober cooperation.

In spite of Laura X's true achievements, there were startling lacunae in her education. She seemed unaware of the world's cultural debt to Ancient Greece. Since French literature in the seventeenth century reflects the classical ideal, she could not see relationships, nor make comparisons. Consequently, a survey was made of Athenian civilization, and for the first time she was brought into contact with the searching minds of its philosophers and poets. Totally deficient in mythology at the outset, she soon had all Olympus at her finger tips.

Laura's weakness in history became painfully apparent when a consideration of eighteenth-century French literature was begun. She confessed that history had never appealed to her, nor could she understand why the instructor attached any importance to the subject. As for current events, she prided herself on never reading a newspaper nor ever listening to a radio. She was thereupon requested to keep a scrapbook of items pertaining to France that appeared in the New York daily newspapers, and informed that a question based on the clippings would be included in her final examination.

This reactionary attitude on the part of the instructor provoked a firm refusal. Laura had no intention of conforming with the request, unyielding in her conviction that a Two-Unit student shaped her own curriculum. The writer explained that professionally she could not allow a supposedly enlightened college student to remain in ignorance of the world at large. There was however a solution to the dilemma. She would transmit a highly

commendable report on Laura's work in French, but resign as her tutor. Perhaps a less disciplinarian instructor might replace her.

The following day, Laura arrived with an enormous scrapbook containing several articles already clipped. When completed in June, it was voluminous indeed. Presented in its final form to the writer as a tribute, it was considerably enhanced by a dedicatory poem and original illustrations, showing Laura to be a talented versifier and an artist of promise.

At the end of the semester, this particular student had actually read and assimilated at least as much material as the freshmen in their introductory study of French literature, and as upperclassmen in their courses on eighteenth-century France and on nineteenth-century trends in French poetry. To this literary aggregate should be added Laura's projects in Greek civilization and literature, excursions into current events and innumerable hours in supervised conversational French. The breadth of her program of study was, of course, possible because of her superior mentality and exceptional preparation.

The writer had become very attached to Laura and enjoyed her frequent visits the following semester. There was marked evidence of increased kindness and social development. On one occasion when a fellow-student was on the verge of collapse through sheer loneliness, Laura enlisted the writer's aid, and through combined efforts, friends and interests were found, with mutual enrichment for all. In Laura's case it is safe to assume that enrolment in a liberalized curriculum brought rich academic and personal rewards not feasible of attainment in the average classroom.

The writer's second Two-Unit candidate, Alice Y, finished her work in the regular class in literature and achieved remarkable progress in oral and written French. Socially, she grew more poised and mature. The following semester she chose to register for one unit in experimental playshop and to divide the second between Greek philosophy and French. Since a partial unit should not represent two smaller segments of different subjects, but tend toward a related whole, the French curriculum designed dealt with aspects of Greek culture as seen by historians, philosophers and poets of nineteenth-century France. Alice's defi-

ciencies in the language had dissolved, and radiant in a new confidence, she revealed to the somewhat surprised writer intellectual depths of true promise.

The following year a junior, Edith Z, a student specializing in the social sciences, who had not studied French in college, developed a unit for cultural purposes. Linguistically weak at first, her progress was remarkable. The last semester she evolved an independent project concerned with the different literary forms of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries: novel, poetry, the drama, philosophical essays and criticism, and chose her own representative texts. Edith Z's maturity of judgment and capacity for organization were at all times a delight to the instructor.

A somewhat different unit was that fitted to the needs of Mabel K, a beginning student in French. She attended the writer's three regular classes each week, spent an additional hour in conference with her, and received generous oral drill throughout the semester from an assistant. In spite of combined tutorial efforts and laudable response on the part of the candidate, her progress was barely that of the average freshman in the course. A physical examination revealed no auditory, visual or nervous contributory causes. It would, therefore, seem that Mabel K's difficulty might be reasonably ascribed to a lack of native facility in verbal areas. In view of a somewhat similar performance in her second concurrent unit, she was urged to consider the advisability of transferring to the regular curriculum.

While the Two-Unit plan permits of a wide variety of interpretations, it does represent a worthwhile gesture in the direction of a student-centered curriculum. Administered by a director and an advisory faculty committee, it has developed in flexibility, and experimented with varying dormitory requirements for the students under its jurisdiction.

As the *Directrice* of the Foyer, Mount Holyoke's French-language house, it has been the writer's pleasure to become socially well-acquainted with five Two-Unit students specializing in non-French areas (Chemistry, Philosophy, the Theater Arts, Religion and History). She has found these house residents delightfully interesting and intellectually gifted and well-adjusted, though individualistic. Their parents have expressed high approval of the plan.

Many Two-Unit students list as a great advantage their close personal relations with their tutors. Those gifted with genuine creative talent can find on the campus that freedom from restraint so essential for artistic endeavor, and with it at the same time, academic guidance.

Among disadvantages might be cited the occasional immaturity of an individual pupil. Without the warm *camaraderie* that exists between classmates, she may experience a certain sense of isolation. In rare cases, a candidate might fail to achieve *rapprochement* with her tutors. Were she then a regular student in the five-course plan, sharing with her classmates the attention of five different instructors, even if one of them proved unsympathetic, a personal crisis need not arise.

Faculty object occasionally to a lack of integration in an individual program, to pyramiding in certain fields, or to exaggerated cases of self-esteem.

Personally, the writer enjoys her Two-Unit students. Their academic progress and friendly demeanor compensate in great measure for expenditures in time and energy that contribute additional weight to a regular teaching program. Excursions into specialties not her own, have reminded her on more than one occasion of a French appreciation of Jean-Jacques Rousseau as music-master: "Through repeatedly teaching music, he had finished by learning it."

Interested in all that concerns France, and in human relationships, the writer has found it an additional stimulation to observe student growth in interlocking academic and personal spheres.

HOMER AND THE COLLEGE CURRICULUM

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THE DISPUTE BETWEEN PRESIDENT HUTCHINS AND PROFESSOR DEWEY

RECENTLY there appeared in *Fortune* a series of articles by prominent thinkers dealing with the college curriculum. What should be studied in college? What is most able to develop the mind of the student? What best enables him to know himself and the world about him? Answers to these questions were attempted by Robert Hutchins and John Dewey. President Hutchins believes that the college man cannot come to a sound understanding of reality unless he studies what the great minds of the past have to teach us. In other words, he should read the works of the masters, the one hundred or so great books of all time. Hutchins would have us start with the ancient Greeks, with Homer, Sophocles, Plato and Aristotle and proceed down through the Roman era, the middle ages, and so into these modern times. He sees in these great books a message of universal meaning and permanent value, a message which has not been superseded by modern learning. These are the classics. They constitute the intellectual heritage of European civilization, the bond that unifies the West and distinguishes West from East. In this view the great books contain the rationale of our way of living and of our culture. To neglect them is to cut ourselves adrift from our spiritual moorings.

John Dewey, the elderly philosopher of Columbia University, takes issue with Hutchins' great book plan. He sees in this rather recent and growing trend a threat to himself and what he stands for. Dewey has long exercised a dominating influence in educational circles in the United States, and though of late his progressive ideas have come up for considerable adverse comment, he is still a power to be reckoned with. In an able article he treats with sarcasm the notion that you can become educated by reading a hundred books. To go back to the Greeks is to turn back the hands of the clock. It is blindly reactionary and obscurantist. The Greeks themselves did not go backwards but studied current problems of their age. True education is pro-

gressive. Progress is achieved through the scientific method. Therefore, it is by the study of Science and the solving of our own problems that we are to enlighten the human mind. For Dewey no truth is to be regarded as having permanent validity, and no values are unchanging. Rather all education is but a pursuit of truth and a closer approximation to the unattainable ideal. Hence, he infers that education should be predominantly scientific, not literary; it should deal with the present, not with the past. Furthermore, Dewey objects to the dichotomy of natural and supernatural—there is only one reality, nature—and all things come under the tribunal of the human mind.

We see here a sharp conflict between President Hutchins and Professor Dewey. The disagreement is widespread and these men are but representatives of two schools of thought. Nor ought we to think that this turning to the Greeks is a new idea. Not quite. A number of times in the past, Europe has had those who directed their attention to the Greeks. As far back as ancient Rome, nations have gone to school to Greece. The Romans were in a sense conquered by their subjects, for though Rome ruled Athens politically, Athens dominated Rome intellectually. The medieval universities in their turn felt the impact of the Greek genius. The works of Aristotle, rediscovered in the thirteenth century, became a bone of contention that profoundly affected European thought, the results of which are felt to this day. The Hellenes (as the Greeks called themselves) again fascinated Europeans at the time of that great intellectual revival called the Renaissance—the renaissance of classical learning, the time of Petrarch and Boccaccio, of Erasmus and Thomas More, of Michelangelo and Leo X. Everybody seemed to be collecting manuscripts, studying Greek, writing poetry. The Renaissance was a kind of love at first sight; the Europeans were swept off their feet by the beauty of pagan culture. And ever since the Renaissance the study of the Greek and Latin classics has held a prominent place in European education. This interest in Greek culture is what Arnold calls Hellenism. Hellenism is a perennial plant and Hutchins' views indicate its present vitality.

THE GREEKS AND OURSELVES

What have we to learn from the Greeks? A picture of a Greek peddler comes to mind, a foreigner. Yet the ancient Greeks are

not as foreign as present-day Asiatics. These men asked and answered questions that vitally interest us today. It is an enlightening experience to see how a nation that antedated Christianity lived and thought. We learn from the contrast and from the similarity. Yet it is not merely its antiquarian charm that attracts men to the Greeks. That is secondary. Rather it is the intellectual qualities of the Greeks: their instinct for truth, their search for first principles, their esteem for wisdom, their quest for the universal and the absolute. In the higher pursuits of the human mind this people excelled. A small nation produced wise men; men who inquired into the nature of things—whether the just is the same as the expedient, whether right is the same as might, whether truth is unchanging, whether good and evil are absolute or relative, whence are all things, what is motion and time, how the many is related to the one. They examined into the nature of the state, what is the best form of government, what education should be given the citizens. They studied man—whether he has a soul, is the soul immortal, is the intellect different from sense, is the will free. They set down canons of criticism in literature and discussed the nature of the beautiful. There were Thales, one of the seven wise men, and Heracleitus, the "obscure," Socrates with his disconcerting questions, the sublime Plato, and the profound Aristotle. They were the philosophers, the lovers of wisdom who in every age awaken in those who study them a thirst for truth.

There is another product of the Greek genius which has won the admiration of the Western mind, and caused men to admit that the modern has still something to learn from the ancient. I refer to Greek poetry, especially the poetry of Homer. To understand the attitude of modern Grecophiles and that of the classicists of all ages, we might consider what Greek poetry means to us. Our expression, "That's Greek to me," would seem to indicate it means very little. But I think we still begin to see how we are indebted to the Greeks if we direct our attention to their great poet, Homer,—Homer the poor, blind, wandering minstrel. Three millennia have passed since Homer walked this earth singing about his gods and men, and now his epics remain to us the most ancient of our literature. The most ancient but the freshest and most life-like. About Homer himself we know so little that

is reserved to latter-day chorizontes to doubt that he ever existed—the Shakespeare-Bacon fracas again. So much belated acclaim was showered on him that

Seven cities claimed great Homer dead
In which the living Homer begged his bread.

The Homeric epics date from about the tenth century B.C. We can't exactly state that Homer wrote them, because writing was not known to the Greeks at that early date. Whence no alternative remains but to say the bard composed his songs and kept them inscribed in his memory. What this means is better appreciated when we remember that the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey* together total well over twenty-five thousand verses. To memorize them seems impossible. Yet not only did Homer himself retain them in memory, but the poems were undoubtedly transmitted orally for the first few centuries. Even in fifth century Athens it was a fairly common accomplishment to know Homer by heart. This accomplishment of the ancients seems to give weight to the saying that the written word weakens memory; at any rate few today would hope to remember so much.

HOMER, THE POET

The epics of Homer must have been highly esteemed from the beginning to have survived to this day. Time reduces to oblivion all but the best. We know the Greeks themselves regarded Homer as their great poet and the teacher of his people. The great tragedians, Aeschylus, Sophocles and Euripides, looked to him as the father of tragedy. Aristotle was able to compose his philosophy of poetry by taking Homer as the exemplar of poetic excellence and investigating what were the qualities of Homer's style. There was, 'tis true, a dissenting minority—not so much with respect to Homer's title to poet but to his place as inspired teacher. Heracleitus laconically said Homer ought to be whipped. He objected to the mythological stories about the gods. And as is well known, Plato excluded poets (Homer especially) from his ideal state. Poets he said are thrice removed from the truth. We must admit that the *Iliad* does reduce the gods to human beings writ large with all the vices and limitations save that they were immortal and ate ambrosia. However we are not in the same position as the Greeks and are not beholden to Homer for

our theology. We can sift out the wheat and enjoy the great poetry that is undoubtedly contained in the Homeric epics. Matthew Arnold considers the *Iliad* and *Odyssey* the greatest literature that exists, and says Homer habitually writes in the grand style, that Homer is noble even as he is simple. Since Schliemann's archeological excavations we know that the Troy described in the *Iliad* actually existed and that the epic is founded on history. But we do not read Homer for history any more than for theology. It is Homer, the poet, that we admire.

Homer regarded himself as a singer. "Sing, O Muse, the wrath of Achilles," says the first verse of the *Iliad*. Homer was richly endowed with that superabundance which seeks to give outward expression, to overflow into a creative work, to sing. The intellect, since it is naturally expressive acquires knowledge inwardly. But by a kind of superabundance it tends to achieve expression outwardly in a-work-to-be-made. This is the song, the work of art. Coleridge calls Homer an "orb of song." The Greeks used the word ποιητής, poet, a maker. A great poet was thought of as a maker in the highest sense; he created his world of fancy, and peopled it with his men and women, like the demiurge spoken of in the *Timaeus* he fashions a poetic cosmos out of chaos. The poet has a lofty mission. He is the human analogue of the divine creator, and like a true creator brings forth his poetic works because he sees that they are very good. At any rate, we can see no other purpose in Homer. He does not attempt to draw a moral; nor teach a doctrine, nor honor a prince; he holds no brief, defends no thesis, corrects no abuse. He seems to sing for the pure joy of singing. The world Homer creates is more highly colored than our everyday world. Through his eyes we peer deeper into things, and see further; we observe what we hadn't noticed before; the simple and homely events of life take on a fresh meaning; and a new appreciation dawns upon us. Poetry completes philosophy by offering us an experience of the singular, it fills in the picture, and communicates what is subjective. We do not simply have the idea of a rational animal, but we become acquainted with Achilles. There is poetry in the proper name, and Homer loves to introduce his people by name:

Now of the Boeotians, Peneleos and Leitus were leaders,
Cloriceus too, Prothoënor and Archesilaus.

HIS CHARACTERS

In the incomparable Homeric characters we see the lofty genius of the poet. With a casual epithet, an incident, a speech, he gives us a much clearer insight into his characters than lesser bards do by lengthy descriptions. Homer, in a sense, does not describe his characters, he does not tell us about them; instead he lets them speak and act, and in their deeds we see what they are. Perhaps Homer knew the maxim, "actions speak louder than words." We might say that the characters of Homer are real and true to life. However we do not mean true to life in the manner of a photograph, but true to an idealized life according to the noble interpretation created by the poet. True, with an artistic truth, after the manner of a painting. Homer is said to create living characters; his men and women are alive, they operate from an internal principle and express by their actions, their temperament, their vices and virtues. They make us feel that there is a psychological unity between what they are and what they do. Epic life in Homer is no puppet show. His characters are not like mario-nettes—pull one string and they do this, another and they do that. We get the impression that the heroes of the Iliad act as they do because they are what they are, not as if actions were hung upon them as ornaments on a Christmas tree.

How, we may wonder, is Homer able to give such convincing dramatizations of many diverse characters. He enters so thoroughly into his different heroes that the poet is lost behind his work. We hear him sing about the wrathful Achilles, or aged Priam, or the little baby Astanyx, each in such a simple, easy way that one would imagine he was recounting his personal feelings, his own desires and thoughts. He is as faithful to life when recounting the *aristeia* of Diomedes as when portraying the anxiety of Andromache, or the machinations of Hera among the Olympians. How can the poet compass in his nature such diverse and contradictory sentiments so as to be able to sing of them. The Greeks had a saying that like is known by like. A great poet must experience in himself the whole range of human emotions. He must feel the courage of the hero, the passion of youth, the tenderness of the maiden, the unconcern of the child. He must reach the heights and depths of human experience. He may observe qualities in people about him, but even so, he must be able

to share them himself by a kind of creative imagination. In short, he must be those people. We learn more about the true Dostoevsky by reading *The Brothers Karamazov* than by reading his biography. And so it is with Homer. We begin to understand the lofty human qualities of Homer when we see the men he has created. This rich interpretation of human experience, and this faculty of expressing what is deepest in our nature distinguish the great poet. And so all admire Homer and are apt to agree when Vergil points him out to Dante in the *Divine Comedy* and says, "This is Homer, of all bards supreme."

THE ILIAD

The Trojan war of the Iliad is held by Soren Kierkegaard to be the best possible subject for an epic of war, and he says Homer has set off this theme to the best possible advantage. The wrath of Achilles is the underlying strain. And the poet seizes on the moment when this "ruinous wrath" bursts forth in all its fury. Homer has often been admired for the way he plunges *in medias res*. He treats the Trojan war as a poet, not as a historian, and confines his attention to a period of fifty-six days in the tenth year of the war. The circumstances of the abduction of Helen and the resulting Greek expedition to Troy, the ten years of preparation and all the events of the first nine years of combat are passed by with hardly a mention. But the precise moment when Achilles and Agamemnon are separated in strife is taken as the starting point. Achilles does not appear throughout several of the earlier books, but his wrath is kept in mind and has a decisive effect. The blind wrath acts like a kind of counter-melody running through the work, throwing a recurring mood into it. The Iliad is an epic of war, and its scenes are those of the battlefield before the gates of Troy. The characters are the heroes, men of the old landed nobility, who prize physical prowess above all things and the honor won in "man-ennobling" strife. The *demos*, or common man, has little place in the Iliad and even the Trojan characters are reckoned as heroes. Episodes of the Iliad are common household tales and have been woven into the fabric of European literature. Stories for children are taken from Homeric episodes such as the duel between Menelaus and Paris, the farewell to Andromache, the slaying of Hector and the quest by Priam for

the body of his son. The speeches found in the embassy to Achilles were taken in ancient times as models of oratory.

To the modern reader the way Homer introduces the Olympic gods into the events of his story seems primitive. Every action is seen from a dual standpoint, from the point of view of the human characters, and from that of the immortal gods. We are tempted to look on this as naïve. However, it is but an expression of a profound truth vaguely understood by the Greeks. By this device Homer manifests his conviction that man is not the sole agent controlling events on this earth. There is in addition a divine influence acting upon the lives of men by which man cooperates with god in working out his destiny. Agamemnon accounts for his perverse conduct towards Achilles in that he was blinded by Até, the goddess of infatuation. Sin or wickedness (*ἀμαρτία*) is due to the blindness that Até casts upon poor mortals. Homer shows that the Greeks perceived in some way the relation of man to the Almighty and the futility of many of the plans and intrigues of mortals. Consider in the first book of the Iliad the scene in which Thetis prays to Zeus to avenge her son Achilles. She wants the king of the Gods to grant victory to the Trojans until the Argives repair the insult of Agamemnon. Zeus assents to this prayer with a nod that caused Mount Olympus to tremble. The audience thus realizes that behind the reversal of fortune on the battlefield there is the plan of the gods. But on earth the human actors proceed as if they were working out the events of the battle by themselves. In this way the action proceeds much more swiftly. The divine element provides an explanation that would otherwise require much circumlocution. It has been remarked that this dual perspective of the divine and the human is present in all of the great epics, and in truth in some measure accounts for their greatness. It shows man in his relation to reality, as a being subject to the power of One above him. In the *Aeneid*, in the *Divine Comedy*, and in the *Paradise Lost* the scene is at times up in the supernal regions of the divine, or down in the nether world beneath. The grand style of the great epic takes a profound view of man and of reality. The epic raises that age-old problem of education—the conflict between the intellectual good and the irrational forces of passion, and adds to it a third dimension, the influence of the divine on the will of man.

VIEW OF LIFE

Homer's philosophy of life, his view of man and nature can be seen portrayed graphically in his description of the shield of Achilles. Thetis had Hephaistus fashion a shield for Achilles and on this shield the divine artificer embossed all manner of scenes. Thereon he moulded the earth, and the sea, and the heavens, the sun and the moon, and all the stars, Orion and the Bear. He set on the shield two cities. In the one there was a marriage ceremony, and farther off, a dispute before witnesses about blood money. The other city was being besieged by an army about its walls, and Moira (fate) and Kér (death) seized now one warrior and now another. Hephaistus next wrought a rural scene with reapers reaping the grain. Children ran to and fro gathering the bundles in their arms while the proprietor stood by observing with satisfaction and his stewards prepared a meal. Then he fashioned a vineyard with grapes of gold on vines of silver, and therein a group of youths played on the lyre and sang the Linos song. There was a pastoral scene, a herd being attacked by lions with men and dogs driving them off. Beyond was a field wherein youths and maidens were dancing, and the young men wooed the maids with presents of cattle. All these scenes were cunningly wrought in a circle and round the circle flowed the stream Oceanus. In this beautiful passage Homer brings out the unity of the cosmos—earth, sea, and heavens, with the mighty stream Oceanus compassing the world. He shows the diversity of human life with its joys and sorrows, war and peace, children and old age. He shows man close to the land, whence he wrests his livelihood in the field, the pasture and the vineyard. Homer completes the picture by introducing Ares and Athena intervening in the battle and the mysterious element of chance or fate, *Moira*. This description of the shield is an admirable résumé of the Greek view of the universe and of human life.

In Homer's view the bard by his profession was to keep alive the deeds of men and gods. The pre-Homeric heroic poems were in fact called *κλέα ἀνδρῶν*—the glories of men. Poetry by its nature has a penchant for looking to the past where the riches of human experience are stored up. In this, poetry differs from science. Physical science is concerned with the present, for the present alone is capable of being observed. The tendencies of

poetry and science are opposite—the opposition between the mythos and the logos, and perhaps this is one factor underlying the conflict between Hutchins and Dewey. Homer is concerned with glory, with idealizing the great deeds of the past. His heroes calmly admit that glory is their due. Achilles does not deny that he is the best of all the Achaeans; Agamemnon boasts that he is the most royal. It is in the battle scenes that we see glorious deeds in all their splendor. The duel between Paris and Menelaus for the possession of Helen manifests Homer's notion of the heroic ideal. The two armies doff their armor in a truce and recline on the plain while a space is measured off in the midst. Atrides prays and sacrifices to Zeus calling on Priam to swear a faithful truce. Hector draws the lot and it falls to Paris. Alexander (as Paris is called in Greek) casts the first spear but the point is bent back by the shield of Menelaus. Thereupon Menelaus with an invocation of the gods casts at Paris and strikes through his shield and corslet but Paris avoids death by swerving. Drawing his silver studded sword with a mighty stroke Menelaus shatters the blade on Paris' crested helmet. Foiled a second time he seizes Paris by the helmet and would have dragged him bodily into the ranks of the Greeks had not the goddess Aphrodite had compassion on Paris. She broke the strap of his helmet and whisked him away from the battlefield, which alone prevented Menelaus from winning "ineffable glory." This scene is described by Homer so vividly and with such suitable details that it cannot fail to awaken in the audience an esteem for heroic deeds. Homer puts into the mouth of Glaucus the motto of the hero who made glory his aim in life. He recounts how Hippolochus, in sending his son Glaucus to Ilium, often charged him *to be the best and to be preeminent over others*. The Greeks had a word which signified this ideal of noble conduct—they called it *Areté*, which is often translated virtue, but in the Iliad means the virtue of war, or fortitude, which was about the only recognized virtue in heroic times. Fortitude is the virtue of war, says Plato, and temperance the virtue (*areté*) of peace.

The plan has been to bring out some of the qualities of Homer's poetry which has drawn upon it the esteem of the ages, and has made Homer to be one of the great educators of the human race. I have attempted to account for this often repeated *Nostos*, this

return to the Greeks. In my undergraduate studies I was fortunate in acquiring the rudiments of Greek grammar but unfortunate in not being introduced to Homer.

Oft of one wide expanse had I been told
That deep-brow'd Homer ruled as his demesne;
Yet did I never breathe its pure serene. . . .

Within the past year, I set about overcoming the deficiency by delving into the Iliad, and was surprised and delighted with what I read. What made the greatest impression on me was the uniform simplicity of this great literature. I think the word that I would use to characterize Homer is that he is *ingenuous*; he is ingenuous in the artless way in which he reveals his characters to us. They seem almost boyish in the candor in which they display their emotions. Great Achilles weeps and rejoices without reflection, without sophistication and with no suggestion of the false modesty that makes one ashamed to exist. Homer shows one that the grand style is not achieved by being ornate, or abstruse or pedantic. It consists in seeing the elemental truths of life with the calm eye of a noble mind. Homer keeps his eye fixed on the object and does not become distracted by considering himself. "*Le style, c'est l'homme.*" By this standard, what a man was Homer.

EDUCATION AND POSTWAR PLANNING

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I

“ONLY the slow process of education and basic changes in the essential nature of man will outlaw wars,” wrote Hanson W. Baldwin in the March *Harper's Magazine*. Mr. Baldwin is military editor of *The New York Times*, a graduate of the United States Military Academy, one accustomed to thinking in terms of military strategy. One is not surprised when a trained diplomat like Sumner Welles calls the present war a penalty “for the lack of courage and intelligence of which we and all other nations have been guilty,” or the educator-diplomat Lord Halifax calls it “in a real sense a war about education.” But when a military writer dumps the problem of keeping the peace back in the lap of education that must be where it belongs.

In retrospect it is obvious that the present war had its inception not in Poland but in national policies going back as far as the last war—which policies, in turn, represent the wisdom of the respective peoples. Given a German people who lift Hitler to power, a British and French people who acquiesce in the long encroachments of fascism, and an American people who could not see where all this was leading, war became inevitable.

The problem of problems, therefore, both in the prevention of war and in ordering the peace, is the old, old problem of education. One would apologize for saying so trite a thing were it not that, despite our tiresome repetition of the importance of education, when we come to deal with a real situation we pay little attention to education as the one hope—at all times and in all countries—for real and enduring improvement in the relations of man to man.

When we have quick “progress” to show it is simpler to by-pass the knotty, fundamental, but glacial process of education and write a studiously vague charter embodying the noble ideals shortly to obtain in a New Order. It requires but a few moments to write charters down on paper (where they have little func-

tional meaning); but it requires years or decades to inculcate ideals into the reaction habits of millions of living persons where alone ideals have reality. The charters have educational value and should be written, to be sure; but can we not somehow, sometime get over to the writers of noble charters the practical, un-rhetorical, simple truth that men act, not from charters, but from deeply imbedded habits conditioning their interests, the focus of their attention, their choice of reading and hence their sources of information, their manner of thinking—in short, from their intricate, mostly unconscious reaction patterns, patiently implanted by thousands of stimuli induced by hundreds of persons and activities since birth? This is education, and this—not charters—is what really makes men tick. As often as not, it makes them act in direct defiance of their charters.

The experience of the New Deal should be a sufficient warning to everyone engaged in planning a better order, not to forget to plan the men to fit the order while planning the order to fit the men. At nearly every turn the New Deal found that its hand could not be played because men did not understand the new rules. Very many of the sillier expedients to which the New Deal resorted—plowing up the cotton, killing the pigs, and so on—resulted, as Henry Wallace frankly stated at the time, simply because men would not accept more fundamental remedies, such as tariff revision, for our then obvious ills. It is important for our present purpose to remember that despite the desperation in which we found ourselves in those days, it was still possible to discredit the very idea of planning. The propaganda artillery blasted the "Brain Trust" out of Washington—Tugwell, Moley, and others—and it has not even yet ceased firing at Wallace. Even if we grant that the noise of the bombardment has come mainly from a few big guns—the Big Business battery and its political and journalistic complement—it still should be a profound lesson to all social planners that a man like Wallace could have been so widely discredited, not because of political corruption or chicanery or any suggestion of dishonesty, but because he is alleged to be a visionary, a planner and a poor politician.

What chance can planning have if it is to be regarded as crime? What chance of improvements if those who conceive possible improvements can be discredited by merely calling them visionaries?

As matters now stand, such is the power of propaganda, such the poor defenses erected by education, that even the Common Man, I fear, can be made to oppose the coming of his own day.

II

Yet in all the discussions about the postwar world what really serious and searching attention is being given to education? The only real innovation concerning the training of youth I have heard proposed by those in high places is a peacetime draft for compulsory military service. Is this to be the keynote in the preparation of youth for the New Day—the era of the Four Freedoms?

It is true that there has been considerable talk by educators about this and that change in postwar education. These changes, as always, have mostly concerned machinery—acceleration, trimesters, the quarter system, federal subsidies and the like. But occasionally, as in the Report of the Commission on Liberal Education of the Association of American Colleges, there has been some pretty plain talk pointing to the need of fundamental reform. Without in any way disparaging this talk, it should, nevertheless, be pointed out that talk of educational reform is certainly not new. There was already a very considerable bibliography of educational reform long before the war. To go back no farther than twenty-five years, one who has followed the literature even casually recalls at once the names of Veblen, of Meiklejohn, of Dewey, of Kilpatrick, of President Chase; of Counts, of Bode, of the Progressives generally, of Beale, of Embree; of the revolutionary report of the *Commission on the Social Studies* of the American Historical Association made just 15 years ago; and more recently of President Hutchins and his St. John's protégés; and still more recently of Mark Van Doren. All of these and many more agree on one thing and one thing only: something is fundamentally wrong with American education.

And so when the Commission on Liberal Education of the Association of American Colleges published its preliminary report in May, 1943, calling for some drastic reforms in colleges, it only made official what had long been alleged. Let me quote one or two snatches from the report to show its tenor: "Many of the reforms which will be required by this emergency are reforms

long overdue in American education." . . . "We have been bedevilled by the multiplication of unrelated and isolated courses, by artificial departmental barriers, by a type of specialization that is hostile to a cultural integration." And so on.

Brave words. And true. But certainly no braver and possibly no truer than the even stronger and closely reasoned report of the Commission on the Social Studies thirteen years earlier—and who even remembers that today? Indeed, who even remembers the 1943 report or the 1945 report? We have too long had brave talk. But are you aware of any really fundamental reforms, overdue or merely due, that have taken place in American colleges or lower schools recently? Or do you know of any that are in process, by way of getting ready to build the undergirding for a better postwar world, which education assuredly must be? If any really fundamental reforms are in process, I do not know where they are. For years I have read the education page in the *New York Times* where one usually learns of little innovations in colleges, and I read a great many other likely sources, but the reports of changes I have seen have concerned almost exclusively incidentals—here is added a new unrelated and isolated course; there a new department erects its "artificial barrier"; and here a new major sequence sets up still another "type of specialization hostile to a cultural integration." Just when do we get around to those overdue reforms?

III

Not the least untoward result of the poor state into which education has fallen is that no one having much to do with education really believes in it anymore. There are signs that even the layman, who through thick and thin has steadfastly maintained his naive faith, if not in education, at least in schooling, is also beginning to wonder.

All of us, teachers and public, sense that something is wrong—that education is either hopelessly impotent or hopelessly remiss as respects the really vital concerns of men when it gives us even college graduates, typically as Ellsworth Barnard said, "grossly ignorant of the whole social structure," and, as has been variously and repeatedly observed by competent persons, lacking in intelligent concern about those affairs basic to social and personal liv-

ing. But we do not need to rely on these reports. Is not the crushing evidence all about us? Is it not all the time hanging over us as a constant threat to the very civilized values for which we stand? The recent dismissal of President Rainey of the University of Texas, not for incompetence, not for impeding the truth, and not for embezzlement, but for insisting on the very values inherent in liberal culture, is but another one of many far-from-infrequent indications of how precariously near we are all the time to the faint line dividing our hard-won, boasted culture from forces that would destroy it.

No, our schools are not developing the social understanding or the social habits we must have if our democracy is not to be constantly threatened with disaster. These threats do not persist because the people's heart is wrong. These are errors of judgment—of education. People just don't *know* "what's cooking." They don't know because they have never been shown the importance of knowing, they have not been taught how to know, and the reading habits and thinking habits we have developed in them have made it entirely unlikely that they will ever know.

From a social point of view our educational failure may be briefly summarized as follows: (1) we have not developed in our young people interests in those things important to their future well-being, personally and socially; (2) lacking such important interests, they lack the incentive to important current reading, which is central to intelligent citizenship; (3) meantime, we have not only not developed in them the habit of such reading, but we have not informed them about it—we have not so much as told them what there is to choose from, what periodicals bear what reports; (4) the net result of all this is that a so-called "educated," by which is meant a schooled, person reads approximately the same periodicals, hence has approximately the same ideas or notions, and hence takes much the same position on all public and personal matters, as the lesser-schooled or non-schooled individual.

IV

If we are to build a future on the democratic faith we have got to educate the young for participation in democracy. The totalitarians, seeing clearly what they wanted, saw also clearly that the way to get it was by indoctrinating—not educating—for it. (The

difference is at once only a shade and antipodal.) It is as necessary to educate for a secure and effective democracy as to indoctrinate for a tribal cult—and more difficult. It is, perhaps, precisely because this is so obvious, so banal, that we have not paid it much attention. Teaching one thing has been supposed to be more or less as good as another.

We have not felt, most of us certainly, that central to our thought in preparing the education of the young must be the aspirant's future function as a sovereign citizen—among other things telling educators what they should do, what they may do, and what they must do. Despite the fact that democracy works that way, the ideals of education as "polite learning," as "mental discipline," as unrelated and irrelevant to the vulgar concerns of life still dominate in this country.

The notion that the school and the college can vitally affect the concerns of man by what they do to the growing boy will sound reminiscent to the Victorians to most academic ears. Yet, at the risk of academic sneers I should like to assert quite positively that they can, that in fact if they can't schools and colleges had as well close shop. There certainly should be ample evidence of two things in the world today: (1) that it is possible to implant in peoples' heads the most varied, absurd and contradictory notions; and (2) that such notions profoundly affect conduct. The Nazi acts as he acts because he thinks as he thinks because he has been taught as he has been taught. Likewise, the Stalinite acts as he acts because he thinks as he thinks because he has been taught as he has been taught. And the Japanese Shinto, and the British laborite, and the American New Deal Democrat and Old Deal Democrat and Progressive Republican and retrogressive Republican, and the Catholic and the Protestant and the agnostic—all of these differences are educational differences. Not of course the products of formal education alone, but of the total educational influences in and out of school.

If this be true—if open-mindedness is as certainly an educational product as dogmatism; if democratic behavior is taught as surely as servile obedience; if, indeed, one's very understanding of the meaning of democracy is a learned concept—the lesson for those who would make plans for the future is obvious. The first plan, the master plan must be a plan for education. Let me

repeat: this is just as true if our plan be for a free society as for a slave society; a free man is an educational product no less than a serf. The same individual can be either, according as he is taught.

V

Whenever I have used the words "taught" or "education" I have not meant merely what is taught in schools. Schools teach a person but a small part of what he learns. However, when we are considering improving the general education we have to think largely of the schools because that is the seat of formal mass education. So now I should like very briefly to state what it seems to me the schools must do if they are to fulfill their minimum responsibility to a democratic social order.

In general, they must bring the content of education abreast of the times. "Good education," said L. A. Mackay, "is always ahead of public opinion and always behind the needs of the times."¹ Public opinion is in no small measure the product of education; and yet if "good" education is always ahead of public opinion, I think it is extremely doubtful whether much of our education today would classify as good. In content, I feel sure that the American public long has been ready for its schools and colleges to move closer to home. Far more Latin is still taught in American schools, I suspect, than, say, economics. I feel sure that far more time is devoted to ancient and medieval history than to reading about or analyzing contemporary society.

I am not speaking entirely from hearsay for I have again been attending high school in recent years in the person of my two daughters. The curriculum, despite all that you may hear to the contrary, is remarkably like the one I knew thirty years ago, the main change being a few new names for the same old stuff. Games they now call by the name of "physical education" and so allow academic credit—to recompense, no doubt, for having deprived them of their spontaneity and fun. For former household chores they have substituted "home economics," and for our non-credit debating, oratory and play-acting, "speech." All of which is, perhaps, helpful and certainly not hurtful. But it has no bearing on the essential problem of educating for the competent understanding which a world in revolution so urgently

¹ Quoted in Arnold S. Nash, *The University and the Modern World*.

demands of the democratic citizen, and which it is a primary function of the schools to impart.

Mark Van Doren, at the request of the Association of American Colleges, recently wrote a book² in which he undertook to diagnose and prescribe for the American college. In it he talks a great deal about what he calls "the seven liberal arts"—grammar, rhetoric, logic, arithmetic, music, geometry and astronomy—which he seems to prescribe for a liberal education. In his index the words sociology, economics, government, psychology and political science do not appear; but mathematics fourteen times. John Dewey has four entries; St. Augustine, five; and the seventeenth century Pascal, sixteen; Aristotle and Socrates, eleven each; and Plato, thirteen. But there is not a single reference to Charles A. Beard, to Bode, Kilpatrick, Veblen, Counts, Cattell, Rugg, Laski, Beale, Bertrand Russell or Watson—all of whom have said things about education that at least need to be answered, that cannot be erased by merely being ignored. Neither is there any reference to the Pennsylvania Study or that of the Commission on the Social Studies. While Van Doren says many fine things in his book, it is obvious that he does not think that the seven liberal arts are primarily social arts. If I may, therefore, I should like to give seven minimum essentials of what I shall call the social art. I am not going to undertake to build a curriculum; I know only too well that, while some things may be added to what we now have, there is an argument, an altogether unique and definitive argument, against leaving out anything whatsoever. I want only to state the minimum characteristics demanded for performance of the democratic function in America today, and which I think it the primary responsibility of the schools to develop.

1. *The social art demands as a minimum an understanding of the economic base of society.*

2. *The social art demands as a minimum awareness of what the main social issues are at any given time.*

3. *The social art demands as a minimum that the citizen be aware of the relation of social issues to his own life and welfare.*

4. *The social art demands as a minimum that the citizen be sufficiently concerned about social issues to cause him to take the*

² Mark Van Doren, *Liberal Education*, Holt, 1943.

necessary time and make the necessary effort to inform himself about them. If I may be dogmatic, I should like to say categorically that all the above can be taught or developed. But they cannot be taught effectively only by rattling the bones or threshing over the quarrels of races long vanished. They can be taught by habituating students to following the issues that vitally affect their own times and by showing them how such issues affect their own lives.

5. *The social art demands as a minimum the habit of good current reading and the ability critically to evaluate such reading.* This can be taught, but it is not effectively taught by having students read snatches from the eighteenth century, or the fourteenth century, or the fifth century B.C.—even though these snatches are in excellent taste and deal with matters of recurrent concern to human life. For proof of this see the statistics showing (a) the grand total of students of literature courses and (b) the circulation figures of magazines. As a starter here are a few circulation figures for 1942: *Harpers Magazine*, 106,846; *Liberty*, 2,302,298; *The New Republic*, 28,781; *Saturday Evening Post*, 3,348,875; *Survey Graphic*, 37,013; *True Story*, 1,898,565; *Nation*, 33,169; *Hearst's International and Cosmopolitan*, 1,850,014; *The Atlantic Monthly*, 106,794; *Colliers*, 2,909,794.

In education for democracy the creation of good current reading habits is crucial. What the graduate reads is not only the real test of his education, but also the real determinant of his action, the surest index of the quality of his citizenship. To predict his future behavior, the best question is not, what does he know? but what does he read? If a student leaves college with the habit of reading the same magazines he read upon entering, his future conduct will be determined far more by this reading than by what he learned in college—however excellent that may be. Ask yourself whether you would not be able fairly accurately to predict the attitude with respect to almost any crucial social issue of an habitual reader of (a) *The Nation*, (b) *The Saturday Evening Post*, (c) *Harper's Magazine*, (d) *Colliers*, (e) *The Survey Graphic*, (f) *Cosmopolitan*, (g) *The Atlantic Monthly*, (h) *the Chicago Tribune*, (i) *PM*, (j) *Liberty*, (k) *The New Republic*.

6. *The social art demands as a minimum an adequate acquaint-*

tance with the chief information media and their *modus operandi*. This is not the same as number five. There must be a *habit* of good reading; and there must be information about the channels and resources of current information. Those rule a nation who tell it what it knows. We must, therefore, equip our young citizen with the widest possible knowledge of who says what.

7. *The social art demands as a minimum the inculcation in the growing citizen of habits concomitant to democracy.* This means we must not merely talk about democracy in the schools but, much more important, we must practice it there. The verbal lesson does not equip one for democratic practice any more than talking about it equips one for practicing any other art. We must practice free speech, democratic participation and other democratic procedures in the school itself. We have got to educate the *person*, not merely expound the theory.

I have made no effort to state all that is worth knowing, nor all that it is important to know. I have stated what seem to me the minimum attributes of the citizen if a democracy is to work as it is supposed to work. Any plans for a better functioning democracy after the war would seem to me to have to postulate these as educational ideals.

I am not going to speak of the obstacles to attaining them. All of us know, I suppose, that the obstacles are considerable. But I do want to say, again categorically but speaking not merely as an armchair educational theorizer but from almost exactly twenty years of testing these theories in the classroom, that we American teachers can give our nation a citizenship with these minimum attributes if we are only intrusted with the freedom to do so. The attainment of this last would seem to me, therefore, a primary objective of all those who build their hopes of the future on the democratic faith. The alternative—the only alternative in a democracy—is to hope that chance and our innate virtue will get us by.

THE DEVELOPING THEORY OF LIBERAL ARTS, 1850-1900

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ONE of the battlegrounds in the development of the theory of the liberal arts colleges is the national literary magazines. On the pages of these periodicals of the past appear the names of many eminent men and women in American education, politics, science, literature and industry, men and women who were interested in all phases of American education and wrote about it. An intensive study of four outstanding national literary magazines—*Atlantic*, *Harper's*, *North American Review*, and *Scribner's* and *Century*¹—between 1850 and 1900 revealed a vast quantity of material dealing with the generic problem of higher education and particularly with the so-called classical college.

Many papers were written by men of considerable national eminence in the United States—men like Theodore Roosevelt, Daniel Coit Gilman, Edward Rowland Sill, James Russell Lowell, Edward Everett Hale, Thomas Wentworth Higginson, and others. The discussions always were timely, and today even the most casual reader may find on higher education many comments and papers which have contemporary pertinence.

In addition to showing that these papers may be of interest to present-day readers, the aim of this paper is, first, to give some indication of the contents of the periodicals as they relate to the classical college; second, to discuss briefly certain of the more important contributors; third, to evaluate the four different periodicals in relation to their contributions to discussions of the classical college; and, finally, to present a selected bibliography for the reader interested in examining the papers relative to the subject of the classical college.

I

During the period between 1850 and 1900, over one hundred and fifty contributors discussed the various aspects of higher edu-

¹ *Scribner's* was founded in 1870. In 1881 its name was changed to *Century Illustrated*. Hence, the history of the magazine is continuous, and for matters of convenience both magazines will be cited hereinafter as *Scribner's-Century*.

cation in the United States. Approximately one hundred different papers dealt exclusively with the problems arising in or from the classical college in this country, and many more articles contained incidental comments on the subjects. These articles and comments are characterized by an incredible unanimity as to what then constituted the fundamental problems facing the classical college. Because of the great amount of materials contained in the magazines, little more can be done here than to indicate in a general way what those problems were.

Contributors to the periodicals were concerned with and disturbed by, first, the confusion in the use of the terms *college* and *university* and attempted to differentiate the college from the university and to define clearly the aims, purposes and limits of each. At the same time, many writers presented what they believed were the values of the classical college.

Second, colleges were criticized frequently and variously. The college curriculum was assailed mercilessly, and the custom of long examinations was condemned. Too many colleges were in existence, it was claimed; but several authors held that the great number was justified. Critics said that colleges awarded too many degrees; that attendance for the vast majority of boys and girls who wished to attend college was so expensive as to be prohibitive; that most colleges were too poor to endow professorial chairs or establish scholarships; that too much clerical domination existed in the college world; and that puerilities—hazing, badges, secret societies, and rushing—and extracurricular activities were detrimental to the American college. There were, of course, those who disagreed.

A third subject treated at length was the curriculum, and three distinct aspects were considered in detail. Enlargement of the curriculum to include English, the modern foreign languages, science, mathematics, history and allied subjects, physical education, military, and commerce was advocated by some; others suggested radical departures from the traditional curriculum. A second curricular interest was the dominance of Latin and Greek. Proponents as well as critics of the classics presented their views. Finally, the elective system in colleges was discussed thoroughly.

Three miscellaneous subjects were accorded lengthy treatment.

Intercollegiate sports were claimed to have immeasurable value to college life and students. However, opponents held that gambling, diversion of participants' attention from intellectual accomplishments, retardation of the maturity of athletes, an undesirable professional spirit, and the danger of personal injury more than offset the values derived from intercollegiate sports. The second miscellaneous topic, morality, included discussions of methods college administrators used to discipline students, existent conditions of morality in colleges, and ways and means of improving the moral tone among college students. Finally, college teaching was evaluated and criticized, and analyses of teaching salaries and teaching standards were made.

II

It is difficult to realize how great was the interest in colleges in the latter part of the nineteenth century. If the national literary periodicals do nothing else, they testify to this fact. An imposing list of contributors who wrote on the subject of higher education appeared and reappeared in the four magazines examined. As might be expected, many of the contributors were college presidents or professors; but the list of "lay" contributors also was great. Theodore Roosevelt presented his ideas of the duties of a college graduate and discussed intercollegiate sports in two separate papers. James Russell Lowell, poet, critic and journalist, considered the aims and functions of the classical college. Kate Gannett Wells, the author, criticized the American college, and Edward Everett Hale rose to defend the so-called "freshwater" colleges. A partial list of other non-educators includes also such names as Walter Chauncey Camp, journalist and sports writer, Andrew Carnegie, the industrialist, Charles Dudley Warner, novelist and journalist, Harriet Beecher Stowe, social reformer and novelist, Samuel Osgood, the preacher, John Townsend Trowbridge, the author, and Henry Mills Alden, long-time editor of *Harper's*.

Many college presidents utilized the pages of the magazines to present their opinions. Among these were William De Witt Hyde (Bowdoin), Charles William Eliot (Harvard), David Starr Jordan (Leland Stanford), Daniel Coit Gilman (Johns Hopkins), Andrew Dickson White (Cornell), Charles Franklin

Thwing (Western Reserve), Charles Kendall Adams (Cornell), James McCosh (Princeton), John Bascom (Wisconsin), James Burrill Angell (Michigan), Horace Davis (California), and Sir William Dawson (McGill).

A number of Harvard professors—men like Nathaniel Southgate Shaler, Albert Bushnell Hart, Le Baron Russell Briggs, Irving Babbitt, Charles Eliot Norton, and George Herbert Palmer—frequently discussed the classical college and its problems, although professors from other colleges made equally substantial and numerous contributions. Columbia's William Robert Ware and Alfred Sidney Bolles, Dartmouth's Edwin David Sanborn, Union's Taylor Lewis, Hopkin's Richard Theodore Ely, Vanderbilt's Charles Forster Smith, Georgia's Andrew Adgate Lipscomb, and Yale's Arthur Twining Hadley were among the many non-Harvard professors to enter the discussions.

With the exception of two men, Walter C. Camp and Charles D. Warner, the most notable contributions to the theory of the classical college were made by educators. Camp, who began the custom of selecting "All-American" athletes, spiritedly and repeatedly advocated and defended intercollegiate sports. Warner held that the American college might be extremely valuable in offsetting the materialistic spirit in the United States and discussed various aspects of the subject of "liberal education."

Far more important to the cause of the classical college were two college presidents, Daniel C. Gilman and Charles F. Thwing. In paper after paper these men, writing independently, discussed various phases and problems of the American college. Gilman differentiated college and university work, criticized colleges for awarding too many degrees, argued for a liberalized college curriculum and discussed college disciplinary problems. Thwing, who was a more prolific writer, but who lacked Gilman's breadth insofar as educational articles were concerned, discussed hazing, college expenses, college teaching, and other isolated college topics. The contributions of Charles W. Eliot also were of outstanding significance, although he did not write so copiously on the subject of the classical college as either Gilman or Thwing.

Perhaps the most enlightened of the educators was Nathaniel S. Shaler, longtime dean of the Lawrence Scientific School. A man of wide interests, he not only saw the problems of the Ameri-

can classical college, but he also offered concrete suggestions as to how these problems might be solved. He discussed college examinations, asking that they be put on a "rational" basis; justified and pleaded for the elective system; admitted to the value of intercollegiate sports; and wanted college discipline to be based on student responsibility rather than on faculty-imposed rules and regulations. In addition, he expressed the belief that if students and faculty worked together with friendliness, harmony and understanding, a college education would be of increased value to the student.

III

The four magazines utilized in this study revealed a wide diversity of value insofar as contributions to the philosophy of the classical college were concerned. With the exception of *Harper's*, all the magazines showed considerable interest in and concern with the problems. Throughout the discussions, *Atlantic* and *North American Review* consistently presented in quality and quantity comments and papers about equal in value. *North American* treated the miscellaneous problems more at length and more comprehensively than did *Atlantic*. But whatever superiority *North American* attained by drawing heavily on college and university presidents and professors as contributors, *Atlantic* offset by presenting along with certain professors and presidents many nationally known authors. While *North American* was superior in its treatment of such topics as college discipline and sports, *Atlantic* had the almost unshared services of Nathaniel S. Shaler who with the exception of once when he appeared in *North American* invariably appeared in *Atlantic*. The tone of *North American* frequently was polemic; *Atlantic* almost always was dignified, quiet and authoritative.

Scribner's-Century along with *Harper's* did not approximate the importance of either *Atlantic* or *North American*. On occasions, *Scribner's-Century* printed comments or papers on certain topics, but chiefly the periodical served as a clearing house for anonymous comments or papers or for unidentifiable authors. It did not deal so consistently as either *Atlantic* or *North American* in regard to the classical college, and as a rule its papers were neither comprehensive nor advanced in thinking. Both qualitatively and quantitatively, the magazine was inferior. Yet in its

moments—when writers like Charles W. Eliot, Charles F. Thwing, Edward R. Sill, or Walter Camp occasionally wrote for it—the magazine was very important.

Harper's chief contribution was its incidental comments—occasional remarks by its editors, Alfred Hudson Guernsey or Henry Mills Alden, and sometimes by men like Charles Eliot Norton or Richard Theodore Ely. On rare occasions, it carried fine papers on the subject of the classical college. In comparison with the other periodicals, however, it was of negligible importance. While its contributors were, as a rule, eminent, there were too few of them, and they seldom wrote on topics which dealt comprehensively with the problems of the classical college.

IV

The following bibliography, necessarily incomplete, contains articles which will be of interest to those who desire to read about the theory of the classical college between 1850 and 1900. Arrangement is alphabetical by subjects discussed in section I of this paper. In many cases, subject matter of the papers overlapped. Some annotation is made to serve as a guide.

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UNIQUE SERVICE FOR VETERANS

GEORGE H. HOLSTEN, JR.

DIRECTOR, RUTGERS NEWS SERVICE

RUTGERS UNIVERSITY is offering its returning veterans a complete employment service built around the principle that no one has a greater interest in seeing a veteran returned to a good job and a happy civilian life than someone who knows him personally or has a background of mutual experiences.

The vanguard of more than 5,400 Rutgers men who will eventually return from the armed forces already is making use of the service and a number of ex-servicemen are now holding jobs to which they were guided by the Rutgers Office of Personnel and Placement.

A booklet outlining the Rutgers plan contains the names of more than 500 successful Rutgers alumni and faculty members who have agreed to give veterans vocational guidance based on their own experience. More than 6,000 copies have been mailed to men in service and discharges.

Returning servicemen will be able to talk to men successful in their occupational fields who have had the same college experiences and who either know them personally or have mutual friends among alumni and undergraduates.

The advisers will furnish the veterans with firsthand information about the advantages and disadvantages of the occupations in which they are interested. They will be able to tell them in friendly discussions of the physiological, psychological and training requirements for success.

They aren't being asked to operate employment offices, but it is expected that they will tell veterans they interview of any openings they know of, or places where jobs might be available.

Veterans seeking vocational advice contact the placement office, describe their job plans and are given a list of advisers they may call on. There are alumni willing to help them in all parts of the United States, in Canada, in South and Central America.

Vocational counseling is only one phase of the Rutgers program, however. Contact is being maintained by mail with thousands of men still in the armed forces in order to have as accurate

a picture as possible of the kind of jobs they want when released from service. In a number of instances men overseas have already been put in contact with prospective employers in the fields in which they are interested. A Rutgers GI in Italy has been put in touch with a business executive who will interview him for a job as soon as he is discharged.

The Bureau of Personnel and Placement has also compiled information on the postwar employment plans of more than 400 industrial and business concerns. This information is available to all Rutgers men and already has aided a number of discharged veterans seeking employment.

EDUCATIONAL NEEDS OF THE LOCAL COMMUNITY AND STATE

LINCOLN B. HALE

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THE past five years have been a time of testing for colleges and universities. Under the impact of war, their programs have been adjusted and then readjusted. Programs of some have been pruned as enrolment has disappeared, but few have been forced to close their doors. All educational administrators have experienced a difficult period of transition and change. We know that the effects of the war have been revolutionary. We wonder about the shape of college education to come. What will be the organizational changes? What of subject matter and methods? I have a few ideas to offer with the hope that they will be stimulating. There will be nothing new. You can fill in the details. The value will be in the creative thinking that may result.

Let us first consider three conditions that will face postwar education. They are not all inclusive but significant for the purposes of this statement. First, there is the probability that we will have more students than ever before. Every prediction indicates that a host of veterans will crowd our doors. These will be added to an increase in the regular age group. The military has emphasized education and training. It has said to youth, "Complete your basic training quickly. Then after you have attended this school, that college, or some program of specialized training you will become valuable as a soldier." This emphasis upon education will transmit itself as the men come home and their younger brothers and sisters turn to our colleges in increased numbers. Then, in addition, a marked development in adult education is forecast. The nature of the community will determine the demands or the opportunity presented to each college, but it seems certain that it means more adults looking to each of our institutions of higher education.

The increase in enrolment will bring its peculiar problems. It will place a heavy strain upon our facilities and faculties. It will be difficult to prepare adequately for the increased load.

NOTE: A talk given as a part of a panel program at the Indiana Conference on Higher Education, May 5, 1945.

The possibility of a shortage of properly trained teachers is very real. In spite of building funds in hand materials and manpower shortages make the preparation of new facilities about impossible in advance of the migration to our doors.

A second condition is the certain reemphasis upon vocational education—the development of all manner of skills essential to the maintenance of economic security. The war has emphasized the machine age. Machines, airplanes, tanks, trucks, and ships are winning the war. Soldiers have been given the specialized training to operate and maintain machines of war. They recognize that they owe the preservation of their country to machines. In addition, the past four years have seen an amazing mass educational movement as industrial workers have been trained to man our factories. In Evansville there has been the development of a large force of highly skilled workers to replace the semi-skilled of prewar days. This is a significant fact for Evansville's postwar industrial planning programs. Along with this renewed emphasis upon technical development has come a new recognition that the capacity for economic self sufficiency is essential for good living.

The age old educational controversy of vocational versus liberal or cultural education is thrown into sharper focus than ever before. It poses a real problem for every institution of higher learning.

A third condition facing us has to do with the new trends in the financing of education. The private college has been the beneficiary of private capital. The current tax policies of the federal government are rapidly whittling down the fortunes on which we have depended, and make the creation of new fortunes almost impossible. Interest rates have reduced drastically the value of our endowment funds. The result has been an amazing willingness to turn to the federal government for assistance. Will the private college be able to continue its existence or must it become a publicly supported institution? At Evansville College I conceive my responsibility to be the creation and continuing of the finest possible educational program for the youth of the Tri-State area. I hope it can be accomplished under private auspices, but I face the fact that the tides of a new era may mean municipal or some other type of public support.

It is but natural that as educators we should be concerned about this tendency toward federal support with its accompanying tendency toward greater centralization of support. One school of thought feels that greater control need not accompany increased financial support. Certainly, past experience would justify some concern at this point. There is certainly a basis for wondering whether the private institutions will be able to continue their existence. There is a major conflict on the world state. Two theories of democracy are competing with each other. The one says that state monopoly provides the greatest good for the greatest number. The other maintains that individual freedom provides the greatest good for the greatest number.

Out of these new trends in financing and in the control of education arises the fundamental problem of the essential freedom of education as we have conceived this freedom. It is as genuine a problem for the public colleges as for the private. We need each other. The bulwark of freedom which the private college gives the public university will be gone if private colleges are eliminated. Yet we recognize that great forces are at work reshaping our world society. There is a tendency in a large world grown small to develop ways of working in larger units. There is certainly the possibility that some new educational pattern may come into being.

May I now project a general theory or plan to meet these new conditions and especially the problems which are inherent in them. My thesis is simply that each institution must develop a functional program integrated with the needs of the community to be served. This theory can be conceived narrowly as applying to a city or county. Or it can be conceived broadly as applying to a state, to the clientele that should be served, be it national, sectional or denominational.

The emphasis would be placed upon specific objectives for each institution rather than upon the general objectives of college education. Each institution would find its distinctive job through a careful analysis of the needs of its particular community. A question such as this would be uppermost, "What are the needs of this community which fall logically in the area of activity of this college?" The Evening College at Evansville College was developed upon this basis. Its program was developed in con-

sultation with representative civic groups and is being constantly reviewed and modified in this same manner. Not long ago a discussion with another college administrator revealed the fact that his institution was considering the development of an agricultural curriculum. He pointed out that parents from rural areas are anxious to have their children attend church-related schools. Few such schools, however, offer training in agriculture.

The application of this general principle means the avoidance of armchair program building. It means going to our community and analyzing needs as the basis for the educational plan. It means coming out of the ivory tower and freedom from the dead hand of tradition. Moreover, it is a continuous process. It involves going out to serve in that community. The administration and faculty must all share in this task. There is a place for the scholar on our campuses, but even he should find some place in the activity of the community.

I would suggest now that such an approach will meet the problem inherent in the conditions I mentioned as significant in our postwar planning. For example, take the problem of vocational versus liberal or cultural education. Any analysis of a community will show, on the one hand, the vocational needs of industry and business; but on the other hand, there will be the needs of music, art, drama and literature. Even more pressing will be the demand for social vision and spiritual insight. The college must assume the responsibility of serving all the needs and these include both vocational and liberal education.

Approach this same question from the point of the student's need and the result will be the same. Bishop Fred Corson, formerly President of Dickinson College, speaking in Evansville recently, summed it up by saying that college education must make students (1) vocationally proficient, (2) intellectually competent, (3) morally responsible and (4) spiritually appreciative.

It suggests a broader concept of our responsibility. It is a more inclusive approach to our job. My own conviction is that this unification of vocational and liberal education is the biggest postwar task which education faces. We must come down out of our ivory tower and deal realistically with the world of reality. If we keep our heads in the clouds we must be sure our feet are solidly on the ground. The old dichotomy must be replaced by synthesis.

Turn to the second problem we face, namely, the obtaining of adequate financial support to meet the demand made upon us. It is obvious that by meeting felt needs we arouse community interest and increase its support of our efforts. One of the by-products of the Evening College in Evansville was the strengthening of our day program. The support accorded the Evening College extended into the Day College and permitted the development of a stronger program at that point. Moreover, it is a truism that people support that which they feel is valuable.

May this approach not provide the best chance of preserving our educational freedom? On the other hand it keeps us as educators sensitive to a changing social order. Such sensitivity should develop flexibility of adjustment and in turn offer the best chance of holding social approval and thus assure the continuation of our institution. Approaching it from the other side, such integration with a community results in its appreciation of the contribution the college is making to the total good and leads to a desire for the continuation of such a valuable institution.

This leads me now to my final suggestion. I have noted the tendency for college to try to be all things to all persons. Certainly the practice, if not the conviction, exists that our undergraduate colleges should be able to serve everybody who comes along. In Evansville I have found the prevalent idea associated with Evansville College that all youth in Evansville should attend Evansville College. My graduate training was such that no one knows better than I do why many Evansville students should go elsewhere to college. It has been interesting to see the amazement expressed when I have so counseled students in conferences with them and their parents.

I am wondering if there are not several patterns of college education. For example, we can readily distinguish these: urban, university, church-related, rural dormitory, etc. I have made no attempt to analyze these differences carefully, but I am sure more could be suggested. A careful study of such differentiations would be most interesting. The point I am making is that we should recognize these differences. Each institution should determine its function, its peculiar job, its pattern; then build well its program to do this particular job and not try to be all things to all people.

Evansville College represented the church-related, liberal arts pattern. It is now changing to an urban pattern. This means a more inclusive program. It will still hold to its religious emphasis. Liberal education is an essential ingredient in any college program. But the urban pattern envisions a much broader approach. It is concerned with developing programs to serve industry and business. It is developing a program with the hospitals to help them in their training of nurses. It cooperates with the Philharmonic Orchestra and Art Museum. It develops the finest possible adult educational program. It seeks ways of serving the churches. It is concerned with meeting all the needs of the community which can be served logically by a college.

I need not review the program of other institutions. You readily see the place of your institutions in such a scheme. Their functions are clearly defined. Perchance, I have suggested possibilities for development. The end result of such a program of recognizing and emphasizing these different patterns would mean less competition among us. Rather we would all find it a better basis for cooperation to provide the best possible total higher educational program for the state of Indiana and in turn for the nation.

I have not tried to present specific educational needs that must be met. They can be presented in the discussion. Rather, I have tried to give a philosophy of education and of educational administration which will help us meet the tremendous challenge of the years just ahead of us.

The question has been raised in a number of quarters whether our present educational system, particularly in the college field, can cope with the situation that is before us. It is not a matter of simply carrying on. That is not sufficient. We must have the imagination to see and grapple with the forces that are shaping a new kind of world. We must keep an integration with both the present and the past.

It is a tremendous challenge. Our task as administrators and as teachers is a rare privilege in such a day as this, but it is likewise a grave responsibility. We have said of the men at San Francisco, "They dare not fail." We should say the same of ourselves, "We dare not fail."

THE SENSE OF COMMUNITY

ARTHUR G. COONS

DEAN, OCCIDENTAL COLLEGE

A GREAT community, whether it be in the development of an urban or a national or a world relationship, that draws forth and stimulates the finest relations among men, that seeks to cultivate the character of man in terms of the best that we know, is not achieved simply by charter, or by law, or by moral precept or prescript, important in themselves though these be. A great community is not built solely by force, of whatever kind, or however organized.

It is built by men who mold institutions to the needs of men. It is built by men who have courage to stand out for principle. It is built by men who have the sense of community and impart that sense, that feeling, to other men. It is built by men who have learned to work together, to be a part of a corporate effort for the good of the group, and who are willing to let no mean or petty or unworthy consideration stand between them and civil equality and equity, justice and fair dealing with other men. We know that unity of purpose and spirit, a sense of community in many things, is an essential of societal survival.

The sense of community is not easily developed. We know it in its rudimentary forms, the products of an earlier pastoral or agricultural culture or civilization, in the towns, in the sense of a neighborhood and its neighborliness, in the pioneer traditions of our western world. From the tribal forms, through city states, to feudal interdependence with all its limitations, to guilds and then to nation states and nationalities, historically we see in various forms, through various channels, the sense of community developing, enlarging, taking on new scope and range and conception. But have we in our day developed the sense of community to keep pace with the requirements of urban life, or of an industrial civilization, or of the present world of men?

We have in America, in our constitutional government, in our now old concepts of political democracy, in our inner loyalties to this nation's independence and security, the evidence of a sense of community, and the recent war's travail and intermingling of

men in the armed forces and the movements of peoples within our borders have worked against sectionalism and narrow provincial or parochial views and feelings. There is, of course, a long way yet to go, but to guide us we do have a high tradition in our literature, in our bill of rights, in our concepts of equality before the law and in education and in economic opportunity. All of these are evidence of our growth in the sense of national community.

Bernard de Voto, in a recent issue of *Harper's Magazine*, illustrates the meaning of our high tradition. He speaks of the profound impression made on him by the great crowd of uniformed men at the magnificent and beautiful Lincoln Memorial in Washington, D. C. They approach from all directions; in groups, singly, men and women; gaily, in conversation, looking about, taking it all in; an evident variety and in evidently varied moods. Then there is quiet as they enter. They are captured by the greatness of the statue. They are caught by awe and wonder. Then they move about. They read the texts on the walls—Lincoln's Gettysburg Address, the Second Inaugural. Some remain a half hour.

They go away. No one laughs. A profound mood overtakes them. They know what he meant and what he means. They have sought for a moment and received contact with the finest expression of the American faith. They have caught the sense of community and they are held by it, strengthened inwardly for the great sacrifices possibly facing each.

Will we hold this sense of community?

Many of our men, many for the first time, have entered also the shrines of the great men of other nations, the monuments to freedom and democracy of England or of France or of the Low Countries, and the faraway and less familiar shrines of the Far East. There, too, for the thoughtful is the sense of community somewhat as Thucydides declared, "The whole earth is the tomb of heroic men, and their story is not graven only on stone over their clay but abides everywhere, without visible symbol, woven into the stuff of other men's lives."

Today the two aspects of human relations in which the sense of community must be found in increasing measure are in the great urban centers of our industrial civilization and in the world as a whole. In the city and in the world! These are the great

areas of deficit in feeling and in action in the sense of community. In these we have not yet achieved a *common* sense which is *common sense*.

An hour of crisis is upon us—the days of transition to peace. It is also an hour of opportunity. We must go through this transition. What values do we espouse? The young men and women of our colleges will find their vocations in one or another aspect of this country's opportunities. They should not forget that the community is greater than each and that the development of a greater sense of community—city with city, town with country, urban with rural, industrial with agricultural and commercial and all other activities—is our common task. They should not forget the many different skins, and creeds, and cultures and levels of living that make up our communities.

For all of our achievements showing the sense of community in the past, let us be grateful. But now we must build not simply great bridges, or dams, or highways, or buildings, but also the character and intelligence of our people and a more satisfying social structure.

How important education is in the building of every community! We need some planning, techniques, science, but we also need balanced minds and lives, aspiration and an artistic feeling, and social poise. We shall not lack for materials, or methods, or machines, but we may lack men with minds adequate to the tasks to be faced.

We need faith today in the value of education in ideals, in noble endeavor, in the possibilities of our present society, and faith in one another. I am sure that no community, nor this nation, will ever suffer if we have an increasing stream of youthful builders intellectually alert, morally sound, socially just and spiritually alive. To this stream, every college must make its contribution or fail.

For, as Professor A. N. Whitehead has shown us, our aims are not just making a living, but living a life and molding a future; and to achieve these we must have knowledge, yes; we must know how we know what we think we know, certainly; we must be mentally skilled and alert, of course; but we must develop our sense of social sympathy and we must have an abiding appreciation of beauty in all its forms and meanings.

Now a new emphasis has come into our lives. Many voices have been bringing home to us the sense of the international, the world community—the meaning of *one world*. We are told that God is no respecter of persons. Consider how He from a point separate from our national identities must regard us. For He “hath made of one blood all nations of men” (Acts 17: 26).

There is a world community in fact. For two centuries the world has been integrating economically. Everyone knows the great expansion of communications bringing with it an interpenetration of culture. Furthermore, many of the great cultures of the world pay tribute to the high religious, ethical tradition of the universal religions which possess the doctrine of world community.

The significance of all this for Americans is tremendous. Similar great changes in thinking and feeling seem to be developing elsewhere. But there are also negative aspects. There is the problem of power. There is the problem of scarcity. The solution of these problems must be immediate and continuing. But their solution will depend not on particular agreements, but on something deeper—the will to seek the peace.

There is the problem of understanding, of cultural contacts. There is the final problem of aspiration and will. What do we seek most? Peace we know is ultimately a by-product of justice. How inclusive is our sense of community? How broad is the area within which we wish justice to prevail? What is our meaning of common sense?

For each of us there must be a rebirth of hope, of aspiration, of faith, of life itself, if either we as individuals or as a people or as a world achieve the greatness of which we are capable. There must be faith in one another. We must nurture the hope of this nation, dedicated to freedom and democracy, whose rich and full development as a great community and as a serving and contributing member of the greater world community may even now be “the last, best hope of earth.”

We must dare to believe that our search for the sense of community, and our efforts to develop the greater community, are in accord with the will of God. May we so deepen our own hopes, faith, courage and strength that we as a people, in so real a sense the hope of the world, of all mankind, in its yearning for justice and peace, may not be found lacking.

Like so many of our fellows in unknown places all over this world today and yesterday and yesteryear, sacrificing at our command and yearning that their outpouring of energy and life may finally have a meaning greater than sordid selfish material gain for a few nations or a few individuals, may we, too, in new ways and with clear vision of the goals, rise to the magnitude of the events that have encompassed us as our lives move on from war through peace. For we know that whether in the life of any one region of this country, or in the life of the entire nation, we are but members of a single generation in a country that "will still be young when we are dead; but while we live her life is in us."

Let us then as Americans now highly resolve that we shall through our own great strength and power seek the way of peace, throw our whole effort behind the present great efforts to build now the great community of men, founded democratically on a constitution of law, working for an expanding world economy, increasingly bound closer together by a mutuality of respect for other cultures and by equitable treatment of other races, seeking ever the reign of justice among all men.

HOW CAN A SMALL COLLEGE GET A GOOD FACULTY?

LIEUTENANT WILLIAM G. LAND, U.S.N.R.

THE small college in America is often seen, but little heard. With but a few exceptions, it is the large university and the medium-to-large-sized college which makes itself known outside its immediate family. It is easy enough to blame the obvious lack of resources and the contrasting amount of newsworthiness of a small institution for inability to make the college known. It might also be that neither the administration nor the faculty have anything worthwhile to say.

The majority of the small colleges are either church-supported or church-related; the others are likely to be state-supported, many of them having been founded as normal schools. All of them, of whatever connection, have the common problem of getting good personnel for their faculty. They have the problem of getting good students, too, but their cumulative success as an educational institution rests upon the influence of their faculty members on the young people who become the students, as well as on the general impression which the college makes upon its community.

A casual glance at the catalogues of a number of small colleges shows that many of their present faculty members were undergraduates there or at nearby institutions—indicating a denominational or geographical continuity of interest. It appears, also, that those who returned to their *alma mater* to teach did so during their days of graduate study or soon after attaining a Ph.D. Again the ties of home or religious belief seem to have been effective in the choice of teachers, supplemented also by the reciprocal loyalties of a college and its graduates. Some of these young teachers have remained in the parent fold—particularly when both man and wife have had faculty positions—but quite as often, it would appear, there have been recurrent changes in the lower ranks of the faculty membership.

Such frequent turnover of those seeking larger institutions and opportunities, more money and more prestige, is even more the rule among that group of teachers who appear to be in their positions by chance. They have come because of personal contact or

perhaps by the "eeny, meeny, meiny, moe" choice of an incipient or recent Ph.D. needing a job. Some of this group, keeping up their contacts with their university mentors and with an ear to the ground for better opportunities, leave the small college and are replaced by another who simply repeats the process. Others, having arrived by chance, remain because they do not have enough opportunity—often because of lack of money to travel to professional meetings or to purchase books and materials to aid their special researches—to make themselves known elsewhere. It is possible, too, for the mere name of a small college which lacks educational distinction to reflect on the capacities of its teachers and so to lessen their chances elsewhere. Thus, having once become faculty members in a small institution, there are some who remain, as it were almost unwillingly, until the time comes when they are out of the running elsewhere.

Almost inevitably, then, the faculty of a small college tends to become provincial in its outlook and mediocre in its standards. There are exceptions: one can always call to mind the honored and loved personalities who have been renowned both as scholars and teachers, yet who have by choice remained in small institutions. Even where there may be several on a faculty who raise the whole level of educational endeavor by their presence, there comes a time when they are no longer spurred with activity. The problem then is to correlate their counsel with the advancing impetus of younger teachers who may carry on in the same spirit. There are a few small colleges whose educational program and standards are such that they attract and challenge young scholars. There should be more.

It is desirable, if a college is to make any mark at all in the field of higher education, to have a continuum of educational policy. Yet neither a consistent nor a constant policy is worth having if the college has not taken care to obtain a unity of good teachers agreed on their educational objectives. In a small faculty, if its educational endeavor is to succeed, there must be complete agreement on the goal, and, if not unanimity as to method, there must at least be respect and regard for the use of different methods under differing circumstances. It is a fortunate college which has drawn together a united faculty which cares about education.

It is also desirable, if the claim of personalized education ordinarily advanced by the small college is to be valid, that the members of its faculty shall each have personal influence on students. This means more than just setting up individual programs of study within the general college curriculum, and more than arranging conference hours or encouraging seminar or discussion groups. Education goes on outside the classroom and the library. A small college community, particularly, is so closely knit together that every hour of the day and every social activity may have an educational impact on some student. Only if the individual members of the faculty are interested in each student as a developing personality will there be the guidance which the small college claims to give. Further, in the church-supported or church-related college the personal attitude of its faculty will do more to make that college truly Christian than any amount of attendance at chapel or courses on the Bible—not that such influences are amiss in any college, but that without the spiritual influence of experiencing Christian ideals in everyday activities, the formal teachings are likely to ring hollow.

Again, it is desirable for the small college to make a special effort to keep its scholarly interests fresh and stimulating. The danger of lapsing unintentionally into provincialism and mediocrity has already been pointed out. If the small college is to be well regarded by the academic world at large it must afford opportunity for the continual exchange of new thoughts, new viewpoints, new learning, not only within the college itself but also outside its community and region. The obstacles to be overcome are normally lack of money, distance from major centers of research, and a historic disinclination for any institutional custom to change. Yet, if the college is to be an active educational influence and if it is to be recognized as outstanding among its fellows, these obstacles have to be overcome.

How can the small college get a good faculty? Assuming for the moment that, both with respect to the enrolment of students and the utilization of the physical plant, the college is operating efficiently, the problems appear to be dependent on the utilization of the funds available and the time available. From the point of view of the faculty member, he wants a good salary—enough to live on without want and to spend for professional and personal

advancement—and also time enough away from college duties to spend it advantageously. From the point of view of the college, it must provide for enough people on campus to give full value to the educational and administrative program. If the college program expects the faculty to devote their full attention to the college and its students, except for a modicum of relaxation, then the college might well be expected to provide the time and means for its faculty to do research and study elsewhere. To do this the small college will have to embark on a program of making full use of both physical facilities and personnel.

Except for the traditional Christmas vacation and the necessary few days of bustling readjustment between semesters, it does not appear economical to leave the investment in college buildings and equipment idle as much as is now the rule. If the small college cannot attract enough students to allow it to run efficiently, it ought to close. On the other hand, it may be argued that it is precisely those periods of freedom from teaching which are needed by the faculty for revivifying their own minds. Yet, as pointed out earlier, the problem of personal finances often prohibits the teacher in the small college from utilizing the vacation period for study or research. To find a way out of this dilemma every small college has the duty to itself and to its faculty to re-examine its mode of operation to see whether, on the basis of a full employment of both physical and personnel resources, it might not benefit by affording its faculty both the time and the financial support necessary to advance the standards of scholarship.

Almost inevitably such a re-examination must be in terms of what the function of the college is with relation to the students who may be expected to attend. Within academic halls there has recently arisen considerable discussion as to the advisability of a "practical" curriculum, a "general education," or an "intellectual" ideal. There are some who look on the student's immediate prospect of earning a living as the important factor: there are others who seek primarily to insure a mental competence. There is also a middle-of-the-road group which sees education as a means of mastering the arts of living, including the art of making one. The question for the small college to decide is which of these three is not merely most in line with its tradition and the inclinations

of its alumni supporters, but also which meets the needs of its region and community and will bring to it the students which it wants in the number that it wants them.

If the college is to use its investment in buildings and equipment so as to give maximum return it must either operate regularly on a year-round basis or provide summer sideshows in addition to the attractions in the main tent. While the latter way is often taken, it quite as often becomes merely a means for the faculty to supplement the meager salary of the regular term—thus again preventing them from experiencing fresh stimulation so as to bring new standards into the community. A small college which decides to operate on a year-round basis will have to undertake a considerable revision of its curriculum. If a cursory survey of college catalogues is any criterion, there appears to be a natural tendency to make the largest possible show of course offerings. With a relatively small faculty, these courses would have to be consolidated and integrated if they were to be offered on a year-round plan which by necessity would be in operation while part of the faculty were on vacation leave.

It would seem advisable, therefore, for the small college to simplify its course requirements, broadening them towards the acquisition of a definite body of knowledge rather than requiring a quantitative and qualitative accumulation of course credits. Aside from the saving in academic bookkeeping, such a program will tend to focus the teaching work of the college on those particular programs which it has been determined will attract students and will find support. It will make it necessary either to heave overboard those fields of study which do not pull their weight or to integrate them with the general requirements of an educational program. It will also bring to the fore the special possibilities which a small college may have within its particular area for correlating the problems of the communities of the region and the industries and the people with the whole body of knowledge.

Such a consolidation and integration of teaching materials and the requirement of the student's perception of a body of knowledge rather than the satisfactory completion of a number of particular subject courses will permit a flexible teaching curriculum. For those basic materials which would have to be taught during

each period of the college year there would have to be two qualified teachers in each major field: but for particular facets of learning or special points of view within the large subject areas it would be perfectly reasonable to assume that they could be taught by a revolving faculty. It would not be at all impossible to envisage, under a system of full employment of resources, with correspondingly increased income from student fees, that the regular members of a small college faculty might well be released from residence for perhaps two consecutive semesters or terms out of five, during which they would receive their regular stipend while away engaged in research.

This goal of providing free time and enough money for the faculty members in a small college to benefit not only themselves but the college is worth seeking. The possibilities of gain in stature to the college itself are challenging. The stimulating influence on students by a faculty whose older members are periodically bringing back fresh points of view and whose younger—and perhaps more temporary—members are full of vigorous new ideas may afford them an educational experience which is unique. The cumulative effect of a small college where education is supremely good is determinative in the lives of its students, its community and its region. There are hundreds of small colleges in America: they should attract permanently to themselves several thousand excellent teachers.

FACTORS INFLUENCING THE DEVELOPMENT OF GENERAL EDUCATION

EARL J. McGRATH

DEAN, STATE UNIVERSITY OF IOWA

COLLEGE programs have recently undergone much reconstruction. These changes have been mainly motivated by a desire to offer students a broad program of general education geared more closely to their needs than the college curriculum of the early twentieth century was. It is the rare institution indeed which has not reexamined its aims and objectives and reorganized its courses of study with this end in view.

The many programs of general education launched in recent years exhibit the widest variation in aims, in structure and in content.¹ It is desirable to preserve these institutional differences because the purposes, the students and the social constituencies served by educational institutions vary considerably. Yet if American youth of this and succeeding generations are to communicate with one another and act with singleness of purpose in the solution of contemporary problems they must possess certain common intellectual and cultural traits. It is reasonable to expect, therefore, that although programs of general education may, in some respects, differ from one institution to another and although one student's course of study may vary somewhat from studies pursued by others, there must be a common element in all programs if cultural and political unity are to be achieved.

The type of general education required in the high schools and colleges of America today can be most easily comprehended by reviewing the social, economic and educational forces which have impinged upon educational institutions in recent decades. Such an analysis will reveal that the type of general education appropriate for present-day students must be somewhat different from that of the late nineteenth or early twentieth century. Such an

NOTE: This is the first chapter of the report of the Cooperative Study in General Education which will describe the results of the efforts made by the faculties of the cooperating institutions to design such programs of general education.

¹ William J. Haggerty, "Current Issues in General Education," *School Review*, XLVI (Sept., 1938), 497-514.

analysis will also give direction to the deliberations of faculty committees and other groups whose responsibility it is to determine the broad purposes of an educational program and to devise suitable courses of study to achieve these ends. Many of the institutions in the cooperative study of general education began their consideration of curricular problems by this type of study of the educational and social forces which have been causing a revision of the high school and college programs. Institutions which fail to take account of the changes occurring in American society and in educational philosophy and practice will be at a disadvantage in adequately serving their constituencies. On the assumption that other faculties may wish to take advantage of the experience of institutions which have already attempted to adjust their programs of general education to the needs of a changing student body, this chapter presents the basic data which should be taken into consideration in revisions of the curriculum.

EARLY AMERICAN EDUCATION

The need for a modernized program of general education can be most dramatically portrayed by comparing the functions of the high schools and colleges of the nineteenth century with the purposes of these institutions today. As late as the 1850's the percentage of young men and women who received any formal education beyond the elementary school was infinitesimally small. Even in a country dedicated to the principle that widespread dissemination of knowledge among the people is the *sine qua non* of democracy this limitation of educational opportunity to a small percentage of the population was inevitable. To understand this apparent inconsistency between philosophy and practice the lives of the people of that day must be considered.

Opinion has varied widely concerning the purposes and content of high school and college education, but educators have generally been in agreement on the basic principle that the schools should provide such instruction as will prepare young people for the activities of life in the world they will enter when they leave the classroom. Indeed, many would hold that the classroom should duplicate the experiences of the outside world. This concept of the purposes of education explains the limited formal general education of the majority of our forefathers. They did not re-

quire the broad education needed by Americans today. In 1880 the vast majority of our people lived a relatively simple rustic existence, and even those in cities were not enmeshed in the complexities of contemporaneous urban life.

The knowledge needed in the common activities of everyday life could be provided in the lower grades. An elementary understanding of language and number, supplemented by moral instruction in the school, the church and the home, constituted the intellectual and social training essential to an adjustment to the life of that day. In rural communities the specialized training required for participation in the productive work of the family was acquired by taking part in these activities. The boy of ten or twelve who had learned the three "r's" in the school had about as much general education as he needed. He could talk, read, calculate and think at least on an elementary level. By assisting and observing his father and older brothers in the chores of farm life, he learned to plow, milk and butcher. From her mother the girl likewise learned her part in the life of the self-contained rural economy. She assisted with the baking, the sewing, and the churning, and even learned the exacting and burdensome activities of rearing a family by caring for her younger brothers and sisters. The esoteric knowledge of the scholar would have added little to the efficiency of life under these circumstances.

It is true that certain services in the community required a more advanced and specialized type of education than that which could be gained either in the elementary school or by practical experience. Clergymen, lawyers and doctors acquired the specialized knowledge and mastered the characteristic skills of their professions either through advanced instruction in the secondary schools and colleges, or by self-study and apprenticeships under a successful practitioner. But the percentage of the total population engaged in these occupations was small indeed. Even as late as the 1930's only about one in eight persons gainfully employed in the United States was engaged in a professional or managerial occupation requiring advanced, specialized education.

Since the common body of knowledge required by our people in the late nineteenth and early twentieth century could be provided in the elementary school, it is not surprising that high school and college instruction should have been designed to suit

the needs of a very small and select group of students, namely prospective members of the professions or managerial occupations. The curriculum of the high school was designed to provide intellectual training basic to college education. College courses had a similar set of narrow objectives. Though not vocationally oriented in a narrow sense—since they consisted primarily of courses in mathematics, the classical languages and philosophy—they nevertheless were intended to serve the needs of a small and select group of students. For all practical purposes it may be said that general education ended somewhere in the upper grades of the elementary school. President Conant has aptly described this situation in the following words:²

In the 1880's the high schools and their equivalents—the private academies and preparatory schools—were essentially concerned with a group of young people who were preparing for entrance into college. By and large, throughout the country the enrolment in these schools in the eighties and nineties represented either impecunious youths with high scholastic aptitude and a keen desire for book learning, or children of well-to-do families who for social reasons were bent on having their offspring acquire a college education. The combination of social motivation of the upper income groups on the one hand, and high scholastic aptitude on the other presented the teachers of that day with a relatively simple problem. In terms of aims and ambitions the student body was relatively homogeneous. What we now call an old-fashioned curriculum enabled the graduates of those schools of the last century to enter college well prepared for further work in modern and ancient languages, in mathematics and in the sciences. For those who could take it the formal instruction was excellent; those who couldn't or wouldn't, dropped by the wayside as a matter of course. From the point of view of those on the receiving end—the professors in the colleges—this was a highly satisfactory situation. What sort of education the rest of the 14–18-year-olds received was none of their affairs!

POPULATION CHANGES

The general education offered in the elementary school is no longer adequate for American youth. But the high schools and colleges have not made an extended program of general education

² James Bryant Conant, "A Truce Among Educators," *Teachers College Record*, December, 1944, p. 159.

available to the millions of students who now attend these institutions. The colleges, and to a lesser extent the high schools, continue to serve the needs of a selected group of students which now constitute only a fraction of the total student population. A review of the forces responsible for the changing character of the student body in the high schools and colleges will suggest the types of curriculum changes required to adapt the educational program to a new student population.

The changing percentage of our population in various age brackets is one of the most significant of these factors. In 1790 there were in this country approximately two children below the age of 16 for every adult over twenty. By 1930 there was less than one child for every adult. These figures show that America is increasingly becoming a land of adults. As the number of dependents which must be supported by each adult decreases, it becomes possible for the average parent to delay the date at which his children must discontinue their schooling and enter upon a gainful occupation. This biological phenomenon has caused increasing numbers of children, especially in the low income groups, to continue their education beyond the elementary school.

That this process of extending the education of the children of low income groups has not yet reached a sufficiently large proportion of our population is clear from the results of studies made in several of the states. In Minnesota, for example, in one of the years just prior to America's entry into the war only half of the students who stood in the upper tenth of their high school graduating classes continued their education in an institution of higher learning.³ Similar studies made in Ohio and Kentucky confirm the findings in Minnesota.⁴ It is abundantly clear, therefore, that tens of thousands of high school graduates, who are potentially capable of rendering the highest service to society, are still denied the opportunity of systematic education beyond the high school.

³ Herbert A. Toops, "Improving Selection at the Secondary School Level," *Current Issues in Higher Education*, Proceedings of the Institute for Administrative Officers of Higher Institutions, 1937, Vol. IX, Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1937, pp. 83-84.

⁴ Horace Leonard Davis, "The Utilization of Potential College Ability Found in the June, 1940, Graduates of Kentucky High Schools," *Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service*, University of Kentucky (Vol. XV, No. 1, 1942), Lexington, Kentucky.

This socially undesirable situation has been temporarily improved through the inauguration of the various college programs of the military services. Through the Army Specialized Training Program and the Navy V-12 program several hundred thousand boys were selected for college education. These selections were made on a competitive scholastic basis without respect to the social or economic condition of the students' families. It may safely be inferred, therefore, that thousands of young men of high scholastic ability have now, as a result of the war, obtained at least part of a college education who, under normal circumstances would have gone to work immediately after graduation from high school. It is impossible, at this moment, to say whether the various states or the federal government will establish a comparable competitive scholarship system after the war designed to provide higher education for young men and women from impecunious families. It is quite likely, however, that a number of states will launch such programs of student aid after the war ends. Public Law 346, commonly referred to as the GI Bill of Rights, already provides this type of educational opportunity at government expense for veterans of this war.

It seems likely that the postwar student population in colleges and universities will be considerably augmented by students of high scholastic ability who normally would not have attended college.

LABOR LEGISLATION

During the same period humanitarian organizations, labor unions and far-sighted social leaders have persuaded legislative bodies throughout the nation to pass labor laws prohibiting the employment of children. In 1940 the majority of states had legally forbidden the employment of children under 16 years of age. The influence of this legislation has likewise been reflected in increased enrolments in the high schools and colleges of the country.

EMPLOYMENT CONDITIONS

Before the outbreak of the present war this movement toward the schools was accelerated by the scarcity of gainful employment for young people of high school and college age. That such a situation was no depression phenomenon alone is revealed by the

studies of the American Youth Commission which showed that even in prosperous years prior to 1929 it was increasingly difficult for young people to find work. Students of economic and social conditions believe that when the present urgent demand for workers has passed a large percentage of young men and women from 14 to 20 years of age will again seek admission to educational institutions.

EDUCATIONAL REQUIREMENTS FOR JOBS

Studies of the policies of commercial and industrial firms show that before the war these organizations were rapidly elevating the educational standards for initial employment. Business houses which twenty years ago engaged help with only an elementary school education had raised the standard to high school graduation. Other firms had begun to insist on at least a junior college education for initial employment even in positions requiring no technical skill, and a few demanded a bachelor's degree. The raising of educational standards in business has been paralleled in the professions. The requirements relating to preprofessional general education as well as specialized professional training have been extended consistently since 1900. This trend has been interrupted by the urgent demands of the military services for men in specialized fields. After the war, however, the professions will return to prewar educational standards. Indeed, some professional groups are already planning to increase general education requirements after the war.

LABOR UNIONS AND GENERAL EDUCATION

Labor unions have been no less influential in the extension of education among the working classes. From the earliest days of labor union activities these organizations have advocated an extension of educational opportunity at public expense, having in mind, of course, the fact that their children were unable to take advantage of educational opportunities above the elementary school available in private secondary schools and colleges. For this and for other reasons they have consistently urged that young people acquire as much education as possible before they enter the labor market.

More significant, however, than their advocacy of greater educational opportunities for the children of parents in the lower

income brackets has been their insistence that the course of study provided for these children include subjects which commonly make up programs of general education in the liberal arts. They are rightly opposed to any dual system of education in the United States which would provide a broad unspecialized general education for the upper middle and wealthy classes, and a narrow specialized vocational education for the children of workers. The influence of these organizations has been very great, therefore, in creating a demand for general education in the upper high school and junior college years. The following statement from the officers of the American Federation of Labor, meeting in Boston from October 4 to 14, 1943, makes clear the position of this organization with respect to the general education of the youth of America:⁵

WHEREAS, Organized Labor has always advocated education among the masses of working people in order that they be better prepared for the battle of livelihood and fulfill their respective places within the movement and in society in general, and

WHEREAS, The American Federation of Labor, through persistent and proper activities, was instrumental in instituting the program of free education for the children of this Nation, including high school training, and

WHEREAS, It is universally recognized that the individual who is properly educated and trained finds suitable employment more readily than one who possesses only a limited amount of schooling, and

WHEREAS, Because of tuition costs, together with the need for subsistence, the average person is unable to acquire any desired schooling above the regular high school courses, and

WHEREAS, At the present time, in certain localities throughout the nation, there are certain schools known as junior colleges, where regular university studies are offered, tuition free, upon certain minor requirements, therefore be it

Resolved, That the American Federation of Labor go on record in favor of the junior college as a means of offering opportunity for a higher education to all young people of this nation with limited resources, and be it further

Resolved, That the American Federation of Labor promote suitable activities tending to encourage the establishment of such educational facilities throughout the entire nation.

⁵ Labor's Statement, *Junior College Journal*, January, 1944, p. 210.

The purpose of this resolution is to extend public education in local communities beyond the high school through the first two years of college. The junior college makes it possible for students to secure two years of their college training in the same manner in which they received their high school education. Such a program makes possible for the student to secure a college education at a much lower cost both in tuition and in costs of living. Consequently the junior college makes possible a college education for many students who could not afford otherwise to go to college. The need for extending public education beyond the high school was emphasized by the fact that thousands of students returned to the nation's high schools for graduate work during the years of economic depression.

Mr. James B. Carey, in a recent talk at Antioch College, reveals that laboring groups are demanding that their children also be introduced to the values and the aesthetic satisfactions which people who have been introduced to the fine arts enjoy.⁶

We need to decide whether we want a nation of merely well-fed, clothed, and housed individuals, who have developed no sense of beauty, cultivated no taste for reading, pictures, music, or other things which help differentiate human beings from the lower forms of purely physical life. A really full standard of living must include more than material satisfaction. And unless our schools re-establish courses in other than the immediately practical fields, which have been emphasized during the war, our long-range society will be impoverished in thought and feeling if not in merchandise.

HIGH SCHOOL AND COLLEGE ENROLMENTS

These changes in our social and economic structure have been largely responsible for the skyrocketing of enrolments in the secondary schools and colleges of the country since the turn of the century. In 1890 there were only 357,813 students in all the secondary schools of the United States. By 1938 this number had risen to 6,736,939.⁷ The full significance of these figures can be realized only by examining the percentage of young people of high school age who were actually in attendance at such institutions. In 1890 only seven persons in one hundred of the appro-

⁶ James B. Carey, "The Antioch College Institute on Conditions for an Enduring Peace," *School and Society*, September 30, 1944, p. 223.

⁷ Biennial Survey of Education, 1936-1938, Bulletin 1940, No. 2, U. S. Printing Office, Washington, 1941, p. 11.

priate age were attending a secondary school. By 1940 this number had risen to seventy-three for the country as a whole, and in some states, Utah for example, virtually every boy and girl of high school age, sound in mind, was attending a secondary school.

Enrolments in institutions of higher learning have also risen rapidly. In 1890 there were 125,000 young people in colleges and universities in the United States. By 1940 this number had risen to nearly a million and a half. In the earlier year only one person between eighteen and twenty-one years of age in thirty attended college while in 1940 this figure had risen to one in fifteen. Though the war has temporarily halted these enrolment increases students of social trends believe that after hostilities cease prewar conditions will return and larger and larger percentages of our young people will complete at least two years of college education and many will continue through the bachelor's degree. These enrolment figures reveal that the aim of the founding fathers with respect to the general education of our people is now being realized.

Those who view this enormous growth in our educational institutions are often so dazzled by the mere increase in numbers that they overlook an aspect of this social phenomenon which is of much greater educational significance. Educational institutions are not only being asked to educate increasing numbers of young people; they are also being asked to educate students who in the mass are basically different from the students of an earlier day in previous education, social background and vocational objectives. President Conant has pointedly described this change in the characteristics of the student population:⁸

But in the last fifty years the scene has been changing rapidly with each passing decade. Quite apart from the enormous numerical expansion of the schools, the composition and aims of the student body have vastly altered. No longer are the schools primarily concerned with preparing boys and girls for college. Consider these figures: In 1870 approximately the same number of male students graduated from all the American high schools as from all the colleges. But the situation altered rapidly, for in 1890 there were, roughly, four times as many boys and girls graduating from high school as from college. And by 1940 the ratio had

⁸ James Bryant Conant, "A Truce Among Educators," *Teachers College Record*, December, 1944, p. 159.

changed so that there were twelve times as many graduating from high school as from college.

The small percentage of boys and girls who attended secondary schools or colleges in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries were selected mainly from the upper classes. They intended to enter the professions or managerial positions in industry and commerce. The relatively narrow course of study of that day was designed to suit their specific needs. Today young people representing a social and economic cross section of our nation attend educational institutions. Many come to college with no specific educational or vocational objective. They wish merely to extend their general knowledge of the physical world and the people who inhabit it, in order that they may be able to make their maximum contribution to society while achieving a personally satisfying life. Nine out of ten cannot hope to become doctors, lawyers, college teachers or scientists. Hence they do not need and should not have the highly specialized instruction preparatory to employment in these occupations. And even those who do plan to enter vocations requiring highly specialized and prolonged training must acquire a broad range of knowledge unrelated to their vocational activities because they, like their contemporaries in other occupations, are also going to be faced with a multiplicity of problems outside their field of employment. The program of the upper high school and lower college years must therefore provide the general knowledge, skills and attitudes required by this and succeeding generations.

INFLUENCE OF GERMAN EDUCATIONAL PHILOSOPHY

If educational institutions are to recast their offerings in such a manner as to adapt them to the needs of American youth, educators must abandon the educational and political philosophy upon which the present program of the school rests. The determinative influence on American education, especially higher education, since the early nineteenth century was of German origin. The educational system of Germany since the beginning has rested on an aristocratic philosophy. The privilege of attending the secondary school or the university has always been limited to fewer than 10 per cent of the population. This small group, identified early in life, pursued a course of study from the ele-

mentary school through the university basically different from that provided for others. The secondary schools and universities of Germany offered intellectual training for a socially, economically and educationally élite group. This educational program was designed for a static society. Consistent though this philosophy may have been with the relatively aristocratic American social organization of the last century it is clearly inconsistent with the social and political philosophy of America today.

The German educational system was founded on intellectual as well as social purposes which are no longer consistent with the needs of America. German universities of the last half of the nineteenth century, when they were attended by thousands of young American scholars, were dedicated to the extension rather than to the dissemination of knowledge. Prospective American scholars who went to Germany to study devoted themselves to investigation and research in a narrowly limited field of knowledge. The principal aim of university education was the scientific analysis of all aspects of life and university teaching was designed to inculcate an interest in and the ability to do investigative work. Even in the fields whose subject matter was uncongential and refractory to scientific investigation such as the humanistic studies and religion the extension of knowledge through critical analysis displaced philosophical reflection and aesthetic appreciation.

As American scholars returned to this country they brought with them the German point of view toward education, with its aristocratic conception of a socially élite class and its emphasis on the extension rather than the dissemination of knowledge. With missionary zeal they indoctrinated their colleagues with this foreign educational dogma, and because of their strategic location in the various fields of learning they often forced an adoption of their views against the opposition of their associates. Even in the small liberal arts colleges the advancement of knowledge became the predominant interest if not the exclusive activity of the faculty, although these institutions often lacked both the physical facilities and adequately trained personnel to justify the use of the time and energy of the faculty for this purpose.

This influence has been chiefly responsible for several features of American higher education which make it unsuitable for a

large percentage of American youth today. In the first place, it has caused teachers to assume that every student would devote himself to the life of a scholar or to some other highly specialized professional activity related to a particular field of learning. It has been assumed, for example, that every student who registers for a course in physics expects to continue the study of that subject into its most specialized upper branches. It has been further assumed that such a student will eventually become an investigator in the field, and for that reason should acquire the intellectual habits of workmanship peculiar to the field as well as all the basic knowledge essential to advanced systematic study of its subject matter. Hence, elementary courses have begun with the detailed information which forms the foundation for further study. They have emphasized the techniques of experimentation and the search for knowledge which characterize the scholar's activities. They have included much subject matter for which the average person has no use in his daily life, while neglecting large portions of general information which all people should possess if they are to understand and live intelligently in the world today.

As academic men and women specialized in ever narrowing fields of scholarship, knowledge in these fields was produced in increasing abundance. In the middle of the 19th century a course in natural philosophy began to be popular in the colleges and universities of the country. This course, which should have more properly been called natural science, included all the systematic instruction which the student received in the fields which now compose the physical and the biological sciences. The extant scientific knowledge was sufficiently small to be compressed into a single college course, at least for those who were merely interested in science as an element of general education. An examination of the average college catalog of 1939-40 will disclose the extent to which the specialized activities of the scholars have resulted in an elaboration of knowledge in the various scientific fields. It is not uncommon now, even in a college of 400 or 500 students, to have as many as a hundred different courses in the fields of the physical and biological sciences.

The rapid proliferation of subject matter in the early decades of this century gave impetus to the development of a program of

general education. It had become impossible for any student to achieve a general education by electing even elementary courses in the various subject matter fields for these fields had become too numerous and the elementary courses had become not general introductions to the subject but basic preparation for advanced specialized courses in the field. Though many attempts have been made in the last ten years to overcome this difficulty by integrating the subject matter of related disciplines, this movement has by no means extended into all the institutions of higher education in America. Indeed only feeble and often fruitless attempts have been made to organize the college program in such a manner as to provide a broad general education for all students. The continuous increase in knowledge, on the one hand, and the increasingly urgent demand for more comprehensive and less specialized knowledge on the other, will continue to cause faculties of colleges to reorganize their programs in such a way as to provide an adequate program of general education for all American youth.

This educational doctrine has likewise been responsible for the high degree of concentration in the program of the average college student. It has been assumed that the student who penetrates a single field of knowledge most deeply is best educated. Accordingly, many students leave college with fifty or sixty hours of instruction in one subject and no instruction in many others. Each department has developed advanced courses of a highly specialized nature for the few students within the department who can take advantage of such instruction, while neglecting to develop elementary courses including broad ranges of subject matter for students who intend to major in other departments. An elementary course in psychology, for example, generally includes considerable information concerning the nervous system, the endocrine glands, and the process of perception, which the future Ph.D. in psychology should know, but for which the average person has little or no use. On the other hand, such courses often do not include much information in the field of abnormal, social and educational psychology of interest and value to the average person. This theory of education has produced scholars and members of the other professions whose competence in the aggregate is unsurpassed by the learned men of any other country.

It has likewise been largely responsible for the scientific research which has made American industry and commerce preeminent in peace and in war. But it has also caused a large percentage of our young people to leave educational institutions ignorant of large segments of knowledge and unprepared to cope with the multiform problems of modern life.

AN AMERICAN PHILOSOPHY OF GENERAL EDUCATION REQUIRED

One of the arresting features of American college education is the heavy mortality of students from the freshman to the junior year. To what extent the remoteness of instruction from the everyday lives of students is responsible for this large-scale withdrawal of students before they have completed a defined course of studies it is impossible to say. It can hardly be doubted, however, that the academic character of much elementary instruction drives many students to the more real, interesting and rewarding experiences of the shop and the marketplace. In the average state university from 50 to 60 per cent of the young people who enter as freshmen leave before the beginning of the junior year. For these young men and women the highly specialized courses of the first two years, designed as a basis for advanced instruction which they are destined never to receive, are obviously unsuitable. What is needed is a high school and junior college program of general education which by the end of the sophomore year will have given them the basic understandings and skills which everyone should possess whether he leaves an academic institution at the end of that period or whether he continues through a full college course, or enters a professional school.

A type of educational program based upon a different educational and social philosophy is required for American high schools and colleges if our young people are to become informed and intelligent citizens, workers, home makers and happy human beings.

THE DOCTRINE OF FORMAL DISCIPLINE

Social and economic changes of recent years which have necessitated a new viewpoint with respect to general education in the upper high school and the junior college years have been paralleled by developments in the field of psychology which also indi-

cate a need for a review of the psychological assumptions which have been the basis of curriculum construction.

Until late in the 19th century most educators accepted without reservation the doctrine of formal discipline, or the principle of transfer of training, as it was often described by psychologists. In accordance with this theory, it was assumed that experiences from one learning situation or set of circumstances automatically became functional in other situations similar in kind. The acceptance of this principle led to the assumption that the school need not provide specific instruction preparing the student for all the varied experiences that human beings might be expected to have in later life. On the contrary, it was assumed that general concepts and skills learned in one set of problems could later be employed in a variety of life situations somewhat different in detail, but essentially similar to the earlier experiences. Accepting this principle, teachers attempted to emphasize general ideas in their classrooms rather than specific detailed knowledge.

THE THEORY OF IDENTICAL ELEMENTS

Early in the 20th century experimentation conducted by a number of psychologists, particularly Thorndike and Woodworth, caused educators to alter their opinion concerning the capacity of human beings to generalize their experience. On the basis of Thorndike's experimentation the theory of identical elements was formulated and announced to the educational world. This theory held that transfer of training would take place from one learning activity to another only to the extent that the two situations included identical elements. A simple example of the application of this theory can be found in the transfer of certain muscular actions, from the playing of the piano to the operation of the typewriter. More complex examples occur in the mental processes involved in addition and multiplication.

The impact of this educational theory on the curriculum of the schools at all levels was profound. The most far-reaching consequence of the widespread acceptance of the theory was an increased emphasis in teaching on specific experience. Since the human mind was assumed to have little capacity for generalizing experience, the school had to provide detailed and specific instruction in all the various phases of life which the student might

encounter in later life. An example of the absurd lengths to which educators went under the influence of this pedagogical doctrine can be found in the field of mathematics. Several investigators made an inventory of the mathematical operations employed by sales clerks in their daily work. This study revealed that the calculations which these clerks were required to make involved the use of only a few fractions. If they understood the use of certain common fractions they had all the knowledge of fractions required in their employment. Other studies of the mathematical knowledge commonly employed in the everyday activities of life were to supply the full complement of specific mathematical knowledge needed by the average American.⁹ Hence, it was not necessary to teach young people the general mathematical concepts which form the system upon which all numerical thinking depends. Instead of making the student familiar with the basic theory and general principles of number applicable to any circumstances requiring a knowledge of mathematics the schools were exhorted to drill students in the use of specific arithmetical operations.

This same doctrine was influential in the development of education in the professions. Accepting the theory of specific training, educational leaders in the various professions found it necessary to include in the curriculum all the specific activities of professional practice. This philosophy of education has been in part responsible for the rapid multiplication of specific courses in the premedical course of study and for the rapid elaboration of narrowly specialized courses in the medical school. Comparable examples of the influence of this doctrine can easily be found in the other professions.

Colleges of arts and sciences and the high schools have been influenced even more profoundly. This school of thought has been largely responsible for the highly concentrated program of studies of the average arts college student. Together with the absorbing interest of teachers in the highly specialized branches of their subjects it has been responsible for the proliferation of advanced courses in the various subject matter fields. Its influ-

⁹ For illustrations of the application of this reasoning to the curriculum in mathematics see Chapter XVIII, of *Curriculum Construction*, W. W. Charters, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1923.

ence is likewise reflected in the attitude of students who have increasingly favored courses with a clear vocational or utilitarian objective.

Under the impact of this widely accepted educational dogma, high school and college curricula became a mosaic of highly differentiated and unrelated courses. The college student of the past twenty years usually made up a four-year course of study by selecting a variety of elementary courses such as biology, psychology, chemistry, foreign languages and government, all of which were organized on the assumption that the student must have an abundance of specific detailed information in preparation for future study in these fields. In addition to these elementary courses which made little attempt to interrelate subject matter, the student rounded out his program for the bachelor's degree by taking a half dozen highly specialized advanced courses in a single field. These courses were generally designed to provide the detailed knowledge required for further advanced study in the graduate school though only a negligible percentage of college graduates ever attended such institutions. The prevailing psychology of the past forty years did not encourage educators to develop a curriculum sufficiently general to satisfy the hundreds of thousands of American youth who attended educational institutions.

THE INFLUENCE OF RECENT PSYCHOLOGICAL THEORY

Recent psychological experimentation has, however, demonstrated that the doctrine of specific training rested on inadequate evidence concerning the operation of the human mind. Studies conducted by the Gestalt school of psychology and by other investigators have shown that transfer of training definitely does take place when the circumstances of the learning situation are properly arranged. Whenever the methodology of instruction is designed to cultivate the capacity to generalize experience, the learner acquires not only the specific information involved but also a body of general principles which can be applied to novel situations as they arise. Moreover, it has been shown by Tyler and others that where this capacity for generalization is made an objective of instruction, material so learned is retained longer than specific information. Tyler showed, for example, that in the course of an academic year students lost a very large percent-

age of the detailed information they had learned in courses previously taken. The generalizations or laws which they had learned, however, were retained nearly completely and the student was able to apply them in the solution of problems with which he had had no previous experience.

The import of this discussion of psychological theory is that the curriculum of the upper high school and the lower college years can be reorganized in such a manner as to include a broad array of general courses in a variety of fields without causing the student to lose any of the essential educative values in more conventional courses of study. General courses in psychology, biology and the physical sciences can and should be developed which include a wide selection of subject matter including the basic principles in these fields as well as illustrations of the intellectual methodology peculiar thereto. Modern psychology does not dictate that each subject be developed systematically from the most elementary fact to the highest possible generalization, including all the detailed factual data of which college courses have commonly been composed. No fundamental educational values need be lost in a broad program of general education if the methodology of instruction rests on the sound psychological principle that the student should be taught to generalize and apply the knowledge he acquires. A curriculum based on the doctrine of specific training includes no intrinsic educational values which cannot be gained in a program of general education.

SPECIALIZED VERSUS GENERAL COLLEGE COURSES

One of the most common misconceptions among educators and laymen alike is that the student who pursues a narrow program of highly specialized courses automatically prepares himself for a superior record in a professional or graduate course of study or for success in his chosen vocation. It is often assumed, for example, that the premedical student who concentrates heavily in the biological or physical sciences to the exclusion of many other disciplines, *ipso facto*, guarantees himself a superiority in the professional school over his classmates who choose a more varied program of studies.

A number of studies have shown, however, that those students who pursue a narrow highly specialized course of instruction are

no more successful in professional schools or in professional practice than are those who have had a broad general education. Studies at Harvard University revealed that students who majored in the natural sciences in Harvard College made no better records in the medical schools than those who majored in the humanities or the social sciences. Students who had majored in the humanities and social sciences made no better records in the law school than those who had majored in the natural sciences. Even at the high school level this same situation obtains. Professor Harl Douglas at the University of Oregon in a study of the relationship between courses pursued by students in high school and success in college showed that the pattern of high school courses a student elected was less closely related to future academic success than the quality of his intellectual performance. Those students who achieved superior standing in high school were in general the best students in college regardless of the type of courses they elected. The conclusion that may be drawn from these studies of the relative merits of specific and general education is that general habits of intellectual workmanship are of far greater value than any particular specific body of knowledge.

VOCATIONAL TRAINING AND GENERAL EDUCATION

One of the most practical arguments for a broad program of general education in the upper high school and lower college years is to be found in the reports of the American Youth Commission. Studies of the amount of education required for initial employment in various occupations in the United States show that very little specific training is required other than that which can be secured on the job. Only 12 per cent of the occupations in this country, such as the professions and supervisory and managerial positions in industry and commerce, require any specialized education beyond high school. Another 25 per cent of American occupations require specialized training of from a few weeks to six months beyond the general education provided in the lower schools. The remaining two thirds require no specialized training which cannot be better provided on the job. It is clear, therefore, that the vast majority of American high school and junior college students should receive general instruction in the various subject matter fields which will be useful to

them in the common activities of life. And even those who are going to enter the professions and other specialized lines of work must have this general common background of experience if they are to adjust adequately to the complex modern world.

It should be clear to the objective observer of these forces which bear upon the educational system of the country that the high schools and colleges, if they are to serve adequately the needs of youth today, must develop courses of instruction which include larger major bodies of generalized knowledge than those common in these institutions at present. The educational program of the first 14 years of the student's school life should be devoted to a cultivation of those general intellectual habits, bodies of information, and skills required by all American youth. Many of the courses which now have a distinctly vocational orientation or which carry the student into the upper branches of esoteric subjects must be displaced by others more closely related to the everyday life of students. Thus, students will leave academic institutions better prepared to understand the physical and social world in which they live, better able to make their own distinctive contribution to American life and better able to appreciate the moral, the intellectual and the aesthetic values upon which a personally satisfying life can be built.

A PLEA FOR COLLEGE PRESIDENTS

F. W. BOATWRIGHT

PRESIDENT, UNIVERSITY OF RICHMOND

THANK you, Dr. Adams, for your gracious words of greeting and congratulation. Your eloquent tribute of praise goes far beyond any merit that I possess. The explanation of any success my administration may have achieved is found in the fact that my friends, both on the Board of Trustees like yourself, and many others not officially connected with the University, have worked with me and through me to build and strengthen this institution of learning. Your message from the trustees carries me back to the early days of my administration and reminds me of a noteworthy incident.

One day in the autumn of 1895, about four months after I had assumed office as President of Richmond College, I received a message that Dr. Robert Ryland, who had been President of the College from its founding in 1832 to 1866, was in the city and wished to see me. I promptly called at the home where the ninety-four-year-old former President was staying and Dr. Ryland himself answered my ring at the door. Instead of inviting me to enter, he threw the door wide open and for the space of a minute he silently surveyed me from head to foot. Then he said, "Young man, how do you like being President, as far as you have got?" I replied with the first words that popped into my head, "Doctor, it's very much like being boss of a chain gang." "Oh, young man," replied the old gentleman, quick as a flash, "it's much worse than that, it's like being in the chain gang yourself."

But as concerns this University the old Doctor and I were both mistaken. There has been no compulsion in the half century I have been privileged to serve as President of the University of Richmond. From trustees, faculty, alumni and students, from the founding denomination and from the general constituency of the University I have had unfailing cooperation and support. These organizations have all condoned my failures, and have en-

NOTE: A response to the address of T. F. Adams, who brought greetings from the Board of Trustees to President Boatwright upon the fiftieth anniversary of his presidency at the University of Richmond.

couraged me to go forward. I cannot emphasize too strongly that from all official groups having to do with this University I have received the utmost in friendship and cooperation. The active interest of these able and interested men and women has been responsible for most of the success we have achieved together and they deserve the lion's share of credit.

Virginia Baptists founded the University of Richmond, but in their organized capacity they have never undertaken to interfere with trustees or president in their management of the institution. They have been as unselfish in their attitude toward the University as in their gifts made in support of Foreign Missions. They regard what they do for the University as their contribution to the building of an enlightened and Christianized society and they seek to serve no selfish or unworthy ends. In return the University administration feels itself constantly challenged to render the largest possible service to the denomination that has cherished and safeguarded it through the years.

The freedom that the trustees and other official bodies have granted me has been at times so great as to be perplexing, for I have recognized the corresponding responsibility laid upon me. Likewise the faculties of the University and the alumni have been most generous and responsive to every suggestion I have made.

But the general public has not always been so considerate, and this situation, which is by no means peculiar to the University of Richmond, leads me to use this occasion in order to make a plea for college presidents in general. At least I think of my plea as made in part for college presidents, but it is made also in behalf of colleges themselves, and most of all in behalf of the great public which finds straight thinking such a difficult task.

It is well known that the tenure of office of a college president is usually brief. A recent book on the duties of college trustees declares that one of their important duties, "which will recur every eight or ten years," is to elect a president of their college. At one of the meetings of the Association of American Colleges which I attended, a discussion group agreed that the term of an American college president might be expected to last from three to seven years. The college associations have succeeded in establishing reasonable tenure of office for college professors and trustees have granted professors freedom of speech within the sphere of their

field of teaching and the bounds of common sense, but the public has not been so considerate of college presidents. The president of an American college is usually a man of fair scholarship, of at least average intelligence, and of some acquaintance with world affairs. Many people, indeed, exaggerate his knowledge and treat him as a walking encyclopedia, qualified to speak *ex cathedra* on any subject. If he has any facility in public address he may be called upon to discuss a wide variety of subjects. But all too many college presidents soon grow wary of committing themselves on questions of public interest. If they offend the prejudices, the politics or the pet hobbies of influential hearers, their colleges may suffer vexatious consequences. The president himself well understands that he is and should be responsible for his spoken or written words. If he is foolish or indiscreet or uninformed, he will suffer the consequences. But personal punishment of this sort is common to all men who take part in public affairs and it does not disturb a college president more than other men. What does disturb him, however, is that so often punishment for his offenses, whether real or imaginary, is visited upon the college whose interests he holds dear. The worst part is that his reasonable freedom of speech is curtailed and he is hindered from placing his knowledge and judgment at the command of a public he would like to serve.

- All college presidents are more or less subject to this pressure from the public. Presidents of tax-supported colleges feel it more, perhaps, than presidents of colleges on private foundation. All too rarely do the presidents of tax-supported colleges discuss in public the vital issues of the day, even though they may be the best qualified men in the state to enlighten the public or to present all the pertinent facts without passion or prejudice. This is true, whether the issue is political or economic, whether it concerns race relations, labor problems, or some other social question.

I used to think that the president of a church-related college or a college on private foundation had far better opportunity to discuss vital issues to the advantage of the public than his state college confreres, but today I am not so sure. Two experiences of my own, though not of recent date, will illustrate more clearly what I mean. Forty years ago I spoke in many courthouses of Virginia in advocacy of more tax money for public schools for all

children of the commonwealth, whether white or black, and especially for at least one good high school in every county. To my surprise I aroused the ire of many farmers who told me they would have nothing to do with a college whose president was going about advocating policies that would ruin farm labor and that would put Negroes on equality with white folk. In connection with a great public meeting held some years ago in Richmond, at which a certain U. S. Senator was to be the chief speaker, the Richmond newspapers printed a list of persons who would be seated on the platform and my name was included in the list. It so happened that I had not been consulted about the use of my name, but I was known to be a friend of the Senator and I had no objection to the publication. However, within twenty-four hours I had a telegram from an irate benefactor of the University of Richmond saying that if I lent my support to such company he would never give another cent to the institution.

A college president is always seeking to make friends for the institution he represents and he is averse to doing anything to alienate any one of these friends. His success as president depends upon his ability to rally friends to the college who will aid his plans with their gifts and service. It is easy to understand, therefore, how he shrinks from any issue that may divide or alienate these friends. The usual result is that he is gradually but effectively silenced on all or most of the great questions of his time.

I have not hesitated to accept invitations to discuss questions of national and international policy before committees of the U. S. Senate, or in committee rooms of the Virginia Legislature, but otherwise I have rarely spoken outside of college halls on these same questions. I have been severely criticized for presiding at a State Convention called to abate the liquor traffic in Virginia, and have been willing on certain occasions to risk losses to the University by making my position known on controversial questions. On other occasions I am sure I have not met the expectations of my friends because I feared the consequences to the institution I loved. I mention these things not to suggest that college presidents are more cowardly than other men, but to emphasize two facts. One is that the college president is no more resentful of criticism of himself than are other men, but he does hesitate to

do anything which may injure the institution he represents. The other fact is that the public undoubtedly loses by the silence of many college executives. I have sometimes declared to my friends that prudent college executives had probably better never say anything on any subject that was in any way rememberable.

My plea is for greater self-control and patience on the part of the intelligent public with the utterances of public men generally. Let these men, as individuals, suffer condignly for their errors and for any misleading statements, but do not punish the institutions or the causes they represent. If such a happy condition could be brought about, college presidents would then venture to speak boldly what they think and the people would perchance sometimes profit by their candid speech on public questions.

What I have said has small personal application. Doubtless I have sometimes considered discretion to be the better part of valor, but I can also say with Michel Montaigne, the French philosopher, "The older I grow the more I dare to tell of the truth that may be disclosed to me." I can only wish for my younger confreres in administrative positions in American colleges the abundant liberty and generous consideration I have received at the hands of the trustees of the University of Richmond and in large measure from the citizens of Virginia.

A CRITIQUE OF THE HARVARD REPORT*

GORDON KEITH CHALMERS

PRESIDENT, KENYON COLLEGE

REFORMS of college education during the past half century have usually begun with an attitude toward the elective system. The system itself has undergone reforms, the chief being the distribution and concentration requirements. Content with this improvement, many educational thinkers have endeavored to provide higher learning under the elective system with a directive or integrating principle. Those still dissatisfied with the reformed elective system urge further reforms for three reasons: some subjects are more valuable than others; the mature are better judges than the young of which subjects are more valuable; and for genuine community it is necessary that educated men possess some important knowledge and ways of thinking in common. Further to reform the elective system these educators also have sought an integrating or unifying principle, and usually they have opposed, in their search, the principles suggested by those who on the whole are content with the generally accepted version of the elective system.

The report of the Harvard Committee makes many specific recommendations; its most significant ones for higher education in the whole country refer to further qualifications of the elective system and to the unifying principle of education. The report also deals in some detail with secondary education, and here, also, an important general proposition is made.

Concerning the elective system the Harvard Committee proposes that the present prescriptions, almost confined to the three-eighths of the course now assigned as the minimum for concentration, be increased by the prescription of a similar amount of work in general education. If the proposals are accepted by the Harvard Faculty, the undergraduate seeking the maximum of unrestricted choice of subjects will find that he may exercise such choice for only one quarter of his courses, though he will retain the important privilege of choosing his major field of concentra-

* *General Education in a Free Society*. Report of the Harvard Committee. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press. 1945. xix + 267 pp. \$2.00.

tion, which at present he may pick out of thirty-two available to him.

Thus Harvard, which developed the elective system, may, by means of the present report, be in process of qualifying and restricting it out of existence. If this happens, however, the new condition will not be the same as that of the curriculum before President Eliot's reforms in the seventies, for the present proposals retain in all their elaborateness the multiplicity of disciplines which have crept into undergraduate teaching under the shelter of the elective system. Instead of prescribing four years of work, as did curricula of a century ago, the new proposals will prescribe a year and one-half of work. They propose, however, to infect the rest of the undergraduate courses with an old thing for which the report finds a new term: general education.

In its definition of general education the committee does its most significant work for higher education the country over. Others have attacked the elective system, notably the traditionalists who want to restore the brilliance of the eighteenth century, and the neo-scholastics who want to adapt an old dialectic to modern times. The Harvard committee shares with each of these groups their negative reasons for reforming the elective system: that educated men enjoy no community because they have not studied the same things and that the study of each individual is unsatisfactory to him because it lacks any significant unifying principle. Though impressed with the great and neglected value of tradition on the one hand and of medieval rationalism on the other, the Harvard Committee finds both reforms of the elective system inadequate. Newness and change are of like importance to tradition; raw reason too often omits irrational or non-rational experience. The committee reverts several times to the neo-scholastic solution of the dilemma, evidently with an eye to the impressive case put forth by the proponents of the hundred best books and the trivium and quadrivium. But when it comes to a choice between the Middle Ages and ancient times, the committee prefers the latter as more modern because more scientific. They also reject metaphysics and, by implication, theology, as offering a viable principle of unity, because of the difficulties of reaching agreement among men on ultimates. They propose "the ideal of cooperation on the level of action irrespective of agreement on

ultimates—which is to say, belief in the worth and meaning of the human spirit, however one may understand it.”

In considering the major efforts to find unity in higher studies the Committee rejects neo-scholastic reason, tradition, and two modernistic attempts: the principle that unity is provided by solving contemporary problems; and that scientific method provides sufficient unity. The former of the modernistic attempts is too contemporary to afford a fair account of what we are; the latter receives somewhat longer notice, probably because, of all the philosophies of learning, it is at present the most prevalent. The Committee calls it the “pragmatist solution,” which “sees in science and scientific outlook this saving unity.” It is the general view favored by the followers of Professor Dewey. Of them, the report says, “Yet, if not the philosophers of pragmatism, at least their disciples seem in practice, if one may put it so, not pragmatic enough. That is, there is always a tendency in this type of thought to omit as irrelevant the whole realm of belief and commitment by which, to all appearances, much of human activity seems in fact swayed.”

The Committee rejects the traditionalist, the purely contemporary, the pragmatist, and the neo-scholastic solutions to the problem of the one and the many in studies, the problem of how in the multiplicity of studies of modern life one may provide the student with a direction or principle to all his work. The committee also, with evident regret, rejects religion as the unifying principle, though it reiterates that the solution which it proposes is consistent with religion and contributes to it.

The Committee proposes humanism, not the sentimental humanitarianism which parades under that name nor the historical humanism of the Renaissance, but something closely akin to the modern and imaginative and rigorous humanism defined by Irving Babbitt. In order to relate the Harvard report to the prevalent pragmatism of higher education on the one hand and to the reforms of the neo-scholastics on the other, it would be instructive to reread some of Professor Babbitt's books, notably *Literature and the American College*, *Democracy and Leadership*, and the chapter on imagination entitled *The Present Outlook*, in *Rousseau and Romanticism*. To reveal the important differences between the philosophy of this report and of those two movements

in higher education just mentioned, a few parallels between the Harvard report and Mr. Babbitt's teachings may be useful.

Like the report, Mr. Babbitt held that it is not necessary for men to agree about ultimates before they may establish genuine community at the human level. Human experience reveals, he said, norms or standards of conduct, and these can be discovered by analysis, comparison, and reflection upon the best evidence that men have left about themselves. "The apprehension of the norm," says the report, "by approximation to it—is education itself, which is thus its own aim." Mr. Babbitt held that Jews, Protestants, Catholics, and Orientals could meet on common ethical ground by close attention to the standard or norm. Like the report, he found nothing incompatible in the norm and Christian belief; on the contrary. He also held that the essential study of literature is ethical. The report states that the first opportunity afforded by literature "is direct access to the potentialities and norms of living. . . . All other aims in the teaching of literature are subordinate to this." "Ethical results of literature are not to be seen as obedience to a body of precepts, but come in quickened imagination, heightened delight, and clearer perspective." Like Mr. Babbitt the report recognizes contrary principles in man, the one expansive and the other restrictive. Freedom, it says, is submission, "submission to the best and fullest truth that can be known, recognizing that truth cannot be fully known."

The Harvard report was written by a committee of twelve, and it is not surprising that at times it departs from the rigorous standard which its analysis of theory sets. Thus, while the usual reference to human values uses the terms *norm* and *standard*, the sentimental language of the times creeps in on occasion, and the humanities are said to be concerned with visions and ideals. The report nowhere, I believe, calls them dreams. In one or two passages the Committee is evidently more sure of the objectivity and hard reality of science and social studies than of the humanities.

But on the whole the report is realistic, talking sense about the nature of learning itself and about the job of teaching and keeping school. In view of the practical mood in which the report is written, it is surprising to learn that the Committee recommends without a qualm that all students read a quantity of poetry in translation. The proposal occurs in connection with the required

course in Great Texts of Literature, such as "Homer, one or two of the Greek tragedies, Plato, the Bible, Virgil, Dante, Shakespeare, Milton, and Tolstoy." Political, legal, and economic essays can be translated into English prose with little loss; so can most prose essays in philosophy. Poetry cannot. Yet four of the nine books here suggested are poems in another tongue (I omit the Bible because the King James translation is an intimate part of our speech). Russians tell me that we cannot read Tolstoy in English, but his works are here recommended.

The aim of the humanities course is "the fullest understanding of the work read rather than of men or periods represented, craftsmanship evinced, historic or literary development shown, or anything else." This is a laudable purpose, and doomed to failure if the work is read in translation. A poem, be it an epic or a tragedy, derives much of its import from the way in which its words are put together. The student properly reads it to know what it says, to learn its own peculiar and special logic, and to debate with himself and his friends whether and in what respects it is true. He is required to take a course consisting largely of poems because poems require him to think in a fashion different from the thinking in a classic of politics or economics. But if most of the poems given him are not poems at all but prose representations of the ideas in a great poem, or, worse, bad English verse representing a paraphrase of ideas in a great poem, what the student comes to know is not poetry at all. He and the instructor may struggle nobly with some ideas distilled out of Homer or Dante or Aeschylus, or, worse, but not unlikely, he may form the notion that poetry means the wooden inversions of Chapman. (How could Keats have felt like some watcher of the skies? Only because he was a man of great perception.)

The Harvard Committee like all committees with a similar aim is faced with a dilemma. It thinks it wants all students to read ancient poetry. This they cannot do without a lot of preliminary hard work of a peculiarly unpopular kind, and there is much more exciting hard work now to take its place. But the committees persist, and soon what they decide they want is not that students read poems but that they be familiar with the ideas which can be paraphrased out of ancient poems; so they are content with translations.

The paraphrased ideas are important and far better than nothing. But to require the student to study and debate these is not to introduce him to one of the three great ways of thinking, the humane way. It is, instead to substitute for the humane way of thinking, the philosophical or argumentative way. The result is that he will be introduced to principles of natural science and the way a scientist observes nature and asks questions and puts small answers together; he will also be introduced to argument on human problems, both individual and social. There his introduction to ways of thinking will stop. He not only will be left in ignorance of the nature of poetry; he will be worse than ignorant: he will think he knows what it is when he does not.

The Harvard Committee includes Shakespeare and Milton in its list, and here are two poets who spoke a language near enough to our own to permit the most alert students to read them as poetry. If the purpose of a humanities course is to lead students to "the fullest understanding" of a kind of work not included in social sciences, one faces a choice of undesirables. You cannot read Dante without reading Dante. The best reading of Dante is not specialist education, far from it. What it asserts in clarity and with conviction is the pattern of liberalism. But few young men will take the time to equip themselves to read Dante. One half-solution of the problem is the one proposed by the Harvard Committee and others: to read Dante in translation. Another would be to omit Dante's poems from a translation course and confine the foreign section of the humanities course to translatable prose expositions of ideas, that is, to the study commonly called philosophy. When it comes to introducing the general student to "the fullest understanding" of a work of poetry, it would be more realistic to confine ourselves to poems in our own language. These, obviously, can be understood to the full. They can be understood in that fashion of thinking so important to men, the humane or poetical fashion.

Numerous recommendations of the report will produce debate. With the building of the houses and the enlargement of the tutorial system, Harvard has been able to offer the undergraduate not only the enormous advantages of a mighty university, but the advantages of collegiate life and instruction as well. Within Harvard there may be some misgivings about the drastic curtailment of the tutorial system which is envisaged by the Committee.

The long passage of the report dealing with secondary education deserves special praise. Facts and valid opinions about school life, both public and private, reveal experience and sympathetic understanding on the part of the Committee. The obligation to provide vocational training side by side with education is clearly understood. The "Jacksonian" as well as the "Jeffersonian" elements of the problem are well stated. For political reasons one may question the wisdom of federal aid for schools; the Committee cogently sets forth the argument in favor of such aid in terms of school itself. Again, there is a vigorous summary of the argument in favor of national competitive scholarships to college.

A third recommendation lies implicit in the analysis of the nature of general education and may be overlooked by the unwary. It constitutes, in fact, the most revolutionary proposal of the whole book, and it is this: that contrary to popular theory, a schoolboy should not be excluded from the best kind of education because he is less gifted than his neighbor. He should not, that is, be consigned to vocational training and wholly deprived of an education because he is not brilliant. Of the less gifted, the report properly says: "They are as worthy and as valuable democratic citizens as anyone else. The problem is to educate them by exactly the same ideals of schooling as everyone else, yet by means which shall be as meaningful to them as are more abstract means to the more abstract-minded." If the less gifted must spend some of their school time at vocational training, they none-the-less have the same right as other citizens of the republic to know and to understand the essentials of our life to the limit of their powers of understanding. The main problem of the report thus becomes: "How can general education be so adapted to different ages and, above all, differing abilities and outlooks, that it can appeal deeply to each, yet remain in goal and essential teaching the same for all?"

For other colleges the report has a threefold significance: its renunciation of the elective system, the development of a relatively new type of course which would follow its adoption, and the philosophical base on which the reforms are built. I have mentioned the first and the last; the character of the general education courses deserve mention also.

It is the purpose of the report to define and establish general education in Harvard as effectively as specialist education has been defined by the departments and supported by budgets, courses, and General Examinations. General education is not elementary education; it is not a subject-matter; rather, it is characterized by a method and outlook, and it should prevail in school and four years of college. It requires courses to be written in general education; it should also infect specialist courses. "One of the subtlest and most prevalent effects of specialism has been that, through its influence, subjects have tended to be conceived and taught with an eye, so to speak, to their own internal logic rather than to their larger usefulness to students."

The few examples offered reveal that the general education course is concerned with ideas, not with an encyclopedic rehearsal of facts. It is also concerned with methods of thinking appropriate to the important fields of knowledge rather than with their minute techniques. For example, the science courses lean to demonstrations and away from laboratories; the purpose appears to be to get the student to observe, yes, but to inquire into his observations as he looks; indeed, inquiry appears to be a major element in the scientific study proposed in general education. The Committee knows the danger of surveys and renounces them; it also is cautious about asking a student to reason about a thing before he is somewhat familiar with it. Thus the Committee suggests that the introductory courses select a few important illustrations of key principles and avoid studying too many books, problems, or experiments.

Some of the general education courses are not yet written; others are to be adapted from existing courses. If in presiding over these courses the proposed Committee on General Education can approach the singleness of purpose which the Committee on Objectives has so nearly maintained in writing this report, the project has great chances of success. Not until the courses are planned and taught can the proposals be judged, but with this lucid and carefully reasoned exposition before us we may well conclude that the reforms proposed are not only directed at important weaknesses in American higher education, but are reasonably and ably designed.

PLAN OF STUDY FOR THE BACHELOR OF ARTS DEGREE AT YALE

WILLIAM C. DEVANE

DEAN, YALE UNIVERSITY

IN the spring of this year, the faculty of Yale College adopted the programs of study which had been developed by the Committee on the Course of Study during the last five years. In the course of its deliberations the Committee undertook to read every important book on education, ancient or modern, consulted with the representatives of many American and foreign colleges and universities, and looked carefully into the history of Yale College itself to assure itself that the tradition of the College was sound and alive, and worthy of continuance. It also analyzed for itself the major trends in American education in recent years, and attempted to assess their worth. The report was in final form early in the spring of 1945, and in a series of meetings the faculty adopted the various parts of the report without any damaging amendments. The plan goes into effect with the class entering Yale in the fall of 1946.

The program adopted falls into three main parts and these parts reflect the main currents of educational opinion in America to-day, at least it reflects our adaptation and application of those currents to the Yale tradition. These three parts are: first, the traditional and central plan of study for the great majority of the students, known as the Standard Plan; second, an experimental plan which reflects the trend towards a controlled educational program in which each student will take a set group of well-integrated courses; and third, a special program for the able student which will give that student a great deal to say about the content and method of his education. This last, of course, reflects to some extent the so-called Progressive movement in American education in recent years. A few words of description about each of these programs may be of some interest.

In preparing the Standard Program the Committee was keenly aware of the tradition of the College, trends in its development, the programs of the secondary schools, the strong national tendency in modern times to develop the specializing aspect of liberal

education at the expense of other parts, and many other problems. It soon became apparent that three phases of the Standard Program had to be reconciled; that basic studies such as Mathematics, English, and Modern Language had to be completed in college if they had not been carried sufficiently far in school; that a plan of distribution had to be provided to assure the College that such great areas as the Natural Sciences, the Social Sciences, and the Humanities, each made their impression upon the student; and that provision had to be made for the specialized study of the student in his chosen field. All this had to be fitted into the twenty year courses which we normally require for the degree, and it had to be so fitted as to leave the student some space for free election.

The problem was one of room and time, but we were not entirely free in the use of these commodities. Powerful and extremely valuable local traditions and courses had to be accommodated, and fitted into the general plan. As a result, nine of the twenty courses taken by the student in his career in college are prescribed, or lie in prescribed groups of courses. Three of these are in basic studies: English, Mathematics, and the Modern Language. Six of them are in distributional fields, allowing approximately two courses in Science, two in the Humanities, and two in the Social Sciences. The amount of prescription is eased, especially for the able student, by the fact that six of the nine requirements are capable of being anticipated by excellent work in the secondary school and on the entrance examinations. The time thus won by the student may be spent in elective courses, if the student so desires, or he may advance more rapidly in his field of concentration, and according to his performance, obtain his degree in three or three and one-half years. It is a cardinal principle at Yale that the education of the student must be viewed through school and college as a continuous whole. The student's special education in his major field is topped off in Senior Year by his senior essay or project, and by the comprehensive examination.

In outline, the Standard Program is fairly orthodox. In the details, however, there are a number of things novel to Yale. Three of these may be of special interest. First, the faculty has set up a sequence of three courses in science for the B.A. candi-

date, two of which he must take in regular order. Science I is a course in Chemistry and Physics. Science II is a combination of Astronomy and Geology, and Science III combines Botany, Zoology, and Psychology. Science I and III have preferred positions, and the student is not permitted to substitute Science II for either of the other courses unless he has done well in Physics, Chemistry, and Biology in school. These courses have been newly designed. They are not pre-professional in nature; neither are they survey courses. Their method will be topical, and chosen topics will be considered thoroughly in the six hours of class and laboratory sessions each week.

A second feature of the Standard Plan is the demand by the faculty that each student engage in summer work of an intellectual nature. This is called Summer Reading. In the summer between Freshman and Sophomore years the student must read from a general list of books which every educated man should know. In the summer following his Sophomore Year the student must read from a list prepared by his major field. In the summer following Junior Year the student must, at the discretion of his department, read in preparation for his comprehensive examination, or undertake specific work in the field or library towards his senior essay or project. At the end of each summer the student's progress will be carefully estimated. This part of the plan is not entirely new to Yale, since before the War considerable progress had been made in its operation, especially in the last two summers of the student's career.

A third novelty in this program is the attempt to give the student a sample of integration. The ninth requirement in the Standard Program is entitled "Relationships of Learning," and is to be taken in the student's Junior or Senior year. At least five courses will be provided each year under this rubric, and in this category the student will normally take his second course in the Humanities or the Social Sciences. Here the purpose is to give broad courses which will relate several fields of study in terms of contemporary life in America. Through this category the student may set up a minor series of courses. Suppose his major is English Literature, but he wishes also to know a good deal about Philosophy. In his Freshman Year he might take the course in Logic and Ethics in his Sophomore Year he might

satisfy the requirement known as the Ancient World by a course in Ancient Philosophy, and in his Junior Year he would follow with such a course in the Relationships of Learning as Modern Philosophy and Science. Other combinations are possible in History, Literature, and the studies of society. It will be made clear to the student that what he is getting is merely a sample of integration in contemporary thinking, and that an integration useful to himself can only be made by himself.

Beyond the Standard Program, two experimental or pilot programs will be instituted. In order to test the values in a program that is closely integrated from Freshman Year onward, forty students will be permitted to elect the first of these programs. Once he has chosen the program the student's work is prescribed for the first two years. In his first year he will take the following courses: a modern language which is new to him; Literature, Philosophy, Mathematics, and Science I. In his second year he will take a second course in the language he has begun, History, Philosophy, studies in society, and Science III. In each case newly designed courses will be provided for these students, and they will be taught in small groups. The key to the plan lies in the two Philosophy courses, one taken each year. These are not ordinary courses in Philosophy. In them the philosopher in charge will be the guide of the students and it will be his task to comment progressively upon the nature of scientific and mathematical "truth," and linguistic and aesthetic conceptions of "truth." In the second year he moves to a discussion of biological, historical, and social conceptions of fact and "truth." In short, he stands like the commentator in Wilder's play, *Our Town*, and informs his listeners upon the significance of what is happening to them.

In Junior Year the student in this program enters into one of the five field majors provided: The History of the West, Studies in Society, Literature and Arts, General Science, and Philosophies and Religions. In these major fields the work is carefully distributed between courses in interpretation, concentration, and relationships to other fields. It ought to be added that these majors are also available to men from the Standard Program.

The second pilot plan is known as Scholars of the House. This is essentially an honors plan. The student who has made honor

lists in his first two years may apply to enter this program. He must submit with his application his plan of study for his Junior and Senior years. If his application is approved by the Committee in charge he will be assigned a special adviser, and will be largely freed from formal course requirements. He has the freedom of the University, and may attend any courses or lectures which may be useful to him. He has also large responsibilities. The most important of these is his senior essay which must show that he has merited and profited from the freedom allowed him. As in all the other programs he has to face a comprehensive examination in Senior Year, but here that examination is relatively less important than his essay or project.

With these elaborate and somewhat expensive plans Yale College hopes in the postwar world to continue its great tradition of producing leaders in learning, church, and state.

THE PRINCETON PLAN FOR THE BACHELOR OF ARTS DEGREE

WITH the permission of President Harold W. Dodds, we quote segments of the report to the Princeton University Faculty by its Committee on the Course of Study regarding a plan of study leading to the degree of bachelor of arts. First is given the letter of transmittal to the members of the faculty from President Dodds, as chairman of the Committee on the Course of Study, which summarizes admirably the "Plan."

In the midst of many pressing concerns of the University in war-time, reconsideration of the undergraduate curriculum has gone steadily forward in various committees of the faculty during the past three years. I am now sending to each member of the faculty, including those on leave of absence, the completed report of the Committee on the Course of Study. It consists of two documents: A "Plan of Study leading to the Degree of Bachelor of Arts" in the form of a catalogue statement, and a set of legislative "Recommendations" of the Committee for action by the faculty. I trust that you will find time to give both documents your most earnest attention. It is my hope that the plan as a whole may be discussed informally at a series of faculty smokers early in the autumn and then presented to the faculty for formal action.

To some members of the faculty, the Committee's report may seem to go too far; to others it may seem not to go far enough. Our sister institutions, Harvard and Yale, are apparently moving further than we in the direction of what is popularly called "general education," enforced by prescribed courses; and the current in American higher education in general is setting strongly in the direction of more careful planning of a liberal education. Your committee has been influenced by this current, but has clung resolutely to Princeton's two-fold belief in the unity of knowledge and the diversity of human beings. The two essentially new features of the plan—the Distribution Requirements and the Divisional Requirements—represent a natural development of Princeton's educational theory and practice rather than a break with the past.

The plan as a whole may be likened to an educational pyramid, with exploration of the major fields of learning as the base, divisional concentration as the converging sides, and departmental concentration as the apex. This pattern has always been implicit in the four-course plan; it is now made more explicit as specific problems of the past twenty years have shown us how to improve our original plan. If the possibilities of the four-year program leading to the bachelor of arts degree are to be realized (and the case for it made as strong as we can possibly make it), there can be no "dispensable" years or terms in our course of study. The proposed plan presents an intelligible and convincing answer, I believe, to those who argue that some of the traditional four years' time is wasted. That answer lies in the organic union worked out in the new plan between the "general education" of underclass years, the divisional concentration of the middle years, and the departmental concentration of upperclass years.

The entrance requirements and the language and mathematics requirements, taken together, represent a response to a situation in the schools which we may regret but cannot altogether remedy. Certainly it cannot be cured by attacking the high schools without a sympathetic understanding of their manifold educational and social problems. The fact is that many high schools now offer only two years of a foreign language. Our problem is to keep our doors open to exceptional students from any school in the country and at the same time to avoid discouraging schools which offer more than two years of language and mathematics. The requirements make clear our desire to encourage thorough preparation in these two subjects before entrance, without unduly penalizing the candidate for admission who has been unable to get such preparation.

The alternative requirement in either language or mathematics after entrance, which replaces a much more complicated existing set of requirements, is motivated by the Committee's belief in the Distribution Requirements which follow. We may wish that all students should pursue both their mathematical and foreign studies beyond the minimum here required; but to insist on such a requirement might in many cases crowd out subjects specified in the Distribution Requirements or interfere with the divisional program in sophomore year.

The fourfold requirement for distribution of courses in the first two years is the result of long discussion and careful analysis of alternative schemes. The objective is to discourage premature concentration and to make sure that every student is at least introduced to each of the major areas of liberal learning. Brief study of typical underclass schedule cards of the past indicates that many students graduate at present without any real acquaintance with one or another of these major areas. Parallel requirements in other institutions comparable to Princeton range from a simple threefold requirement in natural science, social science, and humanities to complicated many-fold requirements including such subjects as physical science, biological science, social science, history, arts and letters, philosophy and religion, the ancient world, and "systematic thinking." The majority of the Committee has concluded that a four-sided requirement in natural science, social science, arts and letters, and history, philosophy and religion would best fit Princeton's conception of a basic liberal arts education.

There can be little argument about the first three. The argument for the fourth is, briefly, that history, philosophy and religion, as taught at Princeton, give the student a sense of unity of knowledge, a feeling for the organic relationships between different disciplines (particularly between the social sciences and the humanities) which cannot be gained from courses in the other three areas alone. It is perfectly possible, for purposes of underclass distribution, to group history with the social sciences, and philosophy and religion with the humanities, as is the case in the divisional programs which follow. But if this were done, much of the value of "distribution" would be lost—as in the case of student programs which might include history and philosophy but no social science or literature, or *vice versa*.

The Divisional Requirements, outlining a program of divisional concentration during sophomore and junior years, have two objectives. The first is to give sophomore year, the weakest link in Princeton's pre-war curriculum, new meaning and direction. The second is to provide a broader and firmer base for departmental concentration. Careful scrutiny of the new plan will reveal that no essential element of the familiar four-course plan of departmental concentration is affected by the divisional pro-

gram of study. If some non-essentials are affected (junior independent reading, junior general examination), it is in the hope that departmental concentration will be improved. It is the Committee's expectation that the traditional senior theses and comprehensive examinations will show the marks of broader knowledge and judgment as a result of the new divisional requirements. As a bridge between underclass distribution and upperclass concentration, the divisional program may well prove to be the most significant and original feature of the proposed plan.

The two new features of senior year—the three-course program and the senior “seminar”—are designed to make a good thing better. Belief in the value of senior independent work, normally a thesis, has grown steadily among the faculty. Testimony appears to be universal that seniors tend to neglect electives in favor of departmental work; and most faculty members would find it hard to question the senior's desire to concentrate hard upon his special interests during his last year, particularly if he had already met the distribution and divisional requirements proposed in the new plan. Besides allowing the senior to devote relatively more time to his independent work, the three-course program would save an appreciable amount of faculty teaching hours. It has been estimated that this time would be easily sufficient to meet the new load anticipated in setting up senior seminars. These seminars would not only whet the interest of qualified seniors but also give both younger and older faculty members an opportunity to conduct teaching experiments in fields very closely related to their own areas of research, and so, perhaps, further the scholarly interests of the faculty in somewhat the same way as graduate courses do now.

In many colleges the senior year is the least defensible of all; it is the one that could be dropped with least loss to the student. We do not so conceive it at Princeton; rather do we view it as the capsheaf of the undergraduate experience. Its value consists primarily in the experience it provides in the value, methods and joys of scholarship and the preparation this experience affords for a useful and successful life as a person and as a member of society.

In the postwar years, the primary concern of Princeton University must be to develop the scholarship of its faculty. At first

glance the new undergraduate plan of study may appear to add largely to a teaching load already great. The new divisional program will, it is true, add something to this load—perhaps the equivalent of one to two full-time instructors per division. But “divisional” advisers will to some extent simply replace freshman and departmental advisers; and the Junior Divisional Examination, after the first few years, should not be a very much larger burden on the faculty than the present Junior General Examination. Finally, it is to be hoped that the divisional programs and senior seminars may bear fruit in interdepartmental research projects, as the experience of the various special programs suggests.

[For implementing the plan of study the Committee makes the following recommendations.]

ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS

1. That the present entrance requirement in modern language be amended to read: “two years of one foreign language, ancient or modern.” Other entrance requirements (graduation from a secondary school, satisfactory general standing, four years of English, elementary and intermediate algebra and plane geometry) to remain as at present.

LANGUAGE AND MATHEMATICS REQUIREMENTS

2. That all candidates for the bachelor of arts degree be required to attain the following level of achievement in either a foreign language or mathematics before admission to the junior class.

- (a) A reading knowledge of one foreign language, ancient or modern, defined as ability to read with reasonable facility any representative passage in that language; or
- (b) a knowledge of trigonometry, and of either coordinate geometry and differential calculus or differential calculus and integral calculus.

3. That these requirements in language or mathematics, together with the present requirement in English composition, be implemented by qualifying tests, required courses, and achievement tests as indicated in the draft catalogue statement.

4. That the Committee on the Course of Study be authorized to determine from time to time what languages, ancient and modern, may be accepted in fulfillment of the requirement in language.

DISTRIBUTION REQUIREMENTS

5. That all candidates for the bachelor of arts degree be required to complete two one-term courses in each of the four following areas by the end of sophomore year:

- (a) *Natural Science* (two laboratory courses in a single science).
- (b) *Social Science* (two courses in the social sciences other than history).
- (c) *Arts and Letters* (two courses in one or two of the following subjects: art, architecture, music and literature, ancient or modern. No course which contributes toward satisfaction of the foreign language requirement to be counted as satisfying this requirement).
- (d) *History, Philosophy, Religion* (two courses).

6. That all existing or new courses which might be taken to satisfy these distribution requirements be considered the special concern not only of the departments which administer them but also of the University as a whole.

7. That the Committee on the Course of Study be therefore authorized to make suggestions to the departments concerning the general character of such courses, and to examine in as much detail as it may consider necessary both the content and procedure of such courses as proposed by departments or interdepartmental committees.

DIVISIONAL REQUIREMENTS

8. That all candidates for the bachelor of arts degree be required to elect one of the three academic divisions of the University (natural sciences, social sciences, humanities) at the end of freshman year; and that each student be required to follow an integrated program of divisional study which shall involve approximately half his course selections of sophomore and junior years and which shall culminate in a Junior Divisional Examination (replacing the present Junior General Examination), as indicated in the draft catalogue statement.

9. That in planning the divisional programs, each division be allowed such autonomy as divisional differences of subject matter and method may necessitate, within the following general framework:

- (a) Not less than five nor more than six of a sophomore's courses to contribute to his divisional program of study, the remaining courses ordinarily to be in subjects not directly contributory to the field of divisional concentration.
- (b) Four of a junior's courses to contribute to his divisional program; at least two of these courses to be also departmental courses; at least two of his electives to be ordinarily in subjects not directly contributory to his divisional program.
- (c) Junior independent work to be departmental or divisional or both, at the discretion of the division.
- (d) The Junior Divisional Examination to be both divisional and departmental in character, with emphasis upon one or the other as the division may determine.

DIVISIONAL COUNCILS

10. That in each of the three divisions a Divisional Council be established, which shall draw up final plans for a divisional program along the lines of those outlined in the draft catalogue statement, these plans to be approved by the Committee on the Course of Study. (The American Civilization Program to draw up plans for its interdivisional program independently.)

11. That after approval of the divisional programs, each Divisional Council be responsible for determining policy in all matters concerning the program of the division.

12. That these councils consist of a chairman to be appointed by the President and of members to be elected by the constituent departments.

13. That each department have at least one and not more than three representatives on a Divisional Council, the number to be determined by the President.

14. That certain departments, such as history, philosophy and psychology, be represented on more than one council.

15. That each council be authorized to set up one or more committees to administer the divisional program, to advise stu-

dents and to frame and conduct the divisional examination; and that the members of these committees be allowed an appropriate measure of release from other teaching duties.

DEPARTMENTAL REQUIREMENTS

16. That all candidates for the bachelor of arts degree be required to choose a department at the end of sophomore year (as at present), and that this department normally be within the division chosen earlier.

17. That in exceptional cases a student may choose a department outside his division provided that both the division and the department in question approve.

18. That a student may normally enter the department of history from either the division of the social sciences or the division of the humanities; that he may enter the department of psychology from either the division of the natural sciences or the division of the social sciences; that he may enter the department of philosophy from any of the three divisions.

19. That the normal course-program of senior year (exclusive of independent work) be reduced from four to three courses per term (two departmental, one elective).

20. That the departments (either singly or in cooperation) and the special program committees be authorized to institute "seminars" for seniors, i.e., courses of limited enrolment for high-stand students emphasizing investigations by students of different aspects of common problems, presented through oral reports. Admission to seminars to be controlled by the departments and program committees concerned.

21. That the number and character of the seminars to be offered in any given term be approved by some appropriate University authority, no right being vested in each department or program committee to offer a seminar in every term.

HONORS AND STANDING

22. That "divisional honors" be awarded on the basis of the Junior Divisional Examination, departmental honors continuing as at present on the basis of the Senior Comprehensive Examination (including the thesis or other equivalent reports).

23. That the Junior Divisional Examination be given substantial weight in determining a student's junior departmental grade.

24. That the Committee on the Course of Study, after consultation with the Committee on Examinations and Standing, be authorized to recommend to the faculty a proper procedure for determining a student's junior departmental standing and his final senior departmental standing, together with such other revisions of the present regulations concerning scholastic standing as may be appropriate to the new plan of study.

THE GROUP SYSTEM AT JOHNS HOPKINS

P. STEWART MACAULAY

PROVOST, JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY

IN the temporary partial vacuum created by the war, practically every college and university in the country has found opportunity to examine its past practices and to lay plans for a more virtuous future. Postwar planning committees have flourished everywhere and the reports now appearing in substantial numbers are remarkably harmonious in tone, especially insofar as they relate to that most controversial of all academic entities, the liberal arts curriculum.

The so-called "group system" seems to be the basis of many of the new plans. This system may be described in several ways and with many different emphases. It may be regarded, for example, as providing "a general education capable at once of taking on many different forms and yet of representing in all its forms the common knowledge and the common values on which a free society depends." Another definition refers to the group system as one in which "A young man may secure a broad foundation for subsequent work without anticipating his proper professional studies,—and (in which) he may, if he chooses, select that course which will tend toward his chosen calling."

That the group system is not entirely new may be readily ascertained by reference to the quotations above. The first is from the report of the Harvard Committee, published in 1945; the second is from the fourth Annual Report of Daniel Coit Gilman, first President of The Johns Hopkins University, and is dated 1879.

There are some wide differences, of course, between the group system introduced by Gilman at the opening of The Johns Hopkins University and those which are being developed today by Harvard and other colleges throughout the country. In the Gilman program the classics occupied an important position. The social studies were not recognized as a group of studies worthy of concentration, although the record clearly reveals that plans were being laid, even then, to elevate them to that stature. Gilman did admit the natural sciences to standing equal to that of

the classics, for three of the seven groups in his college permitted concentration on scientific subjects.

While it is dangerous to assert that anything in the field of education is new, there seems to be no doubt that the group plan as introduced at Hopkins in 1876 was almost as striking an innovation as Gilman's concurrent introduction of postgraduate training in an American institution. Whether or not Gilman deserves credit for having originated the system, there is some interest in following its development at Hopkins, for the program of instruction in the College of Arts and Sciences today bears strong resemblances to the one introduced in 1876.

Gilman's program, which was described in the college catalogue as "a liberal education with a tendency toward special studies," divided the groups along pre-professional lines rather than in terms of "natural" divisions between the several major fields of learning. This scheme resulted in seven groups: Classical, Pre-medical, Mathematical—engineering, General scientific, Theological, Pre-law and Non-classical literature. The arrangement of courses within the groups—except for the strong classical bent—was quite similar to the programs of today. While the social sciences were not recognized as a respectable field for specialization, they were well represented in the curriculum and students in all groups were required to study history, political economy or philosophy. Mathematics was recognized as a necessary foundation in all fields and the student in theology was expected to include two scientific subjects in his curriculum.

From 1876 through 1914 the group system continued in effect in the College of Arts and Sciences at Johns Hopkins. There were, of course, changes in the groups and in the courses offered within them. The social sciences won recognition and the classics, while still adequately represented, no longer outweighed the other major fields. It might appear from a casual scanning of catalogues that the Hopkins program was influenced scarcely at all by the advent of the free elective system and its tremendous increase in popularity throughout the country. But that appearance was deceptive for, in 1915, the college succumbed to influences apparently beyond its control. The group system was replaced by a new plan of instruction based on the elective system. For the first time in any Hopkins catalogue there appeared

a table indicating the unit value of courses and requirements for graduation began to be described in terms of 125 units. While the 1915 program made a bow to the group system by including tables of "suggested combinations" there is no doubt that the revolution was fairly complete. From 1915 until 1932 collegiate education at Hopkins was a familiar modification of the free elective system.

There is evidence that the faculty was never completely satisfied with the change. In any event, in 1932 a committee was appointed to re-survey the collegiate program and to recommend changes. The Committee, headed by Professor George Boas of the Department of Philosophy, advocated a forthright return to the group system. The groups recommended were those which since have become fairly familiar—literature and languages, natural sciences and social sciences. Obviously, these had less professional flavor than the Gilman groups, but there is a remarkable similarity in pattern otherwise. Gilman's classical theological and literary groups became the literature and language group. The scientific, mathematical and pre-medical groups became the natural science group and Gilman's pre-law program had its more modern counterpart in the social science group.

When the group system was reinstated, Hopkins also dropped the arithmetical points credit and began again to define the baccalaureate degree in terms of a program of work completed satisfactorily. Even the marking system was simplified, students being rated H, S or F, depending on whether their work was of honor grade, satisfactory, or unsatisfactory.

From 1932 to the present there have been few modifications in the group plan. As a concession to the requirements of the medical schools a pre-medical group was broken off from the natural sciences and later still the marking system was returned to a more conventional A, B, C, D, again a concession to professional schools and graduate schools which professed not to be able to understand the simplified method.

When the University's Committee on Postwar Planning was appointed by President Bowman in January of 1943, one of the first problems it tackled was that of the college curriculum. Although there was a background of satisfaction with the group system, the committee did not begin with the assumption that it

was the best of all systems. The others were given a hearing and, in some cases, rather detailed study; but in its report the committee voted unanimously for retention of the group system. By and large, the committee found that the plan was operating satisfactorily in its second stage—the stage of concentration in one broad field. It did, however, recommend the elimination of the pre-medical group since it is possible for the student to meet all pre-medical requirements through study in any of the three remaining groups.

The main attention of the committee was directed to the first two years of the College, the years in which the student obtains the "liberal" or "general" part of his collegiate education. It was noted that there is a tendency on the part of departments to arrange introductory courses as though they were pre-professional courses, rather than in terms of the objectives of a program designed to provide breadth of understanding. The committee advocated strongly that a number of courses be redesigned and recommended the addition to the basic curriculum of some subjects not hitherto required. The intent of all the proposed changes was to provide for every student in the college a fuller opportunity to become familiar with each of the major fields of learning, not from the point of view of the specialist but from the point of view of the educated man.

No startling innovations were advanced by the Postwar Planning Committee but the report itself is significant in that it represents an objective reexamination of a well-established plan of instruction, and a reaffirmation of faith in the essential soundness of that plan.

AMONG THE COLLEGES

BALDWIN-WALLACE COLLEGE has received \$125,000 from George W. Ritter, a Toronto attorney for the erection of a new library, to be named in memory of Mr. Ritter's parents. The donor is an alumnus and trustee of the college. The total cost of the library will be approximately \$250,000 and will provide space for 100,000 volumes, accommodating 300 students at desks at one time, in addition to rooms for "general study, periodicals, reference, seminars, research and browsing. Two special alcoves are provided for the outstanding Bach Library of Dr. and Mrs. Albert Riemenschneider, the other a Religious and Philosophical section commemorating the earlier Nast Theological Seminary."

DENISON UNIVERSITY is the recipient of a series of art treasures contributed largely by Edmund G. Burke of New York. Among the gifts are four tapestries of the late 17th and early 18th centuries, including a Gobelin and a Teniers and two Flemish designs depicting historical subjects. Included also are two oil portraits, one of Christopher Columbus by the celebrated American painter, Daniel Huntington, and the other of Lord Bacon by Sir Godfrey Kneller, Dutch-English painter, whose works are little known in America. Another is a 15th century votive panel known as a Spanish Primitive. From 21 other donors smaller objects d'art have been added within the past year to the Art Treasure Room Collection.

EVANSVILLE COLLEGE has received \$250,000 from the William H. McCurdy estate to apply on the development fund of the college.

LIMESTONE COLLEGE celebrated the Centennial of its founding on November 4-6, 1945. The speakers included the following members of the Association of American Colleges: President Francis P. Gaines of Washington and Lee University, President Henry N. MacCracken of Vassar College and President Bessie C. Randolph of Hollins College.

OHIO WESLEYAN UNIVERSITY announces that two estates, that of Dr. Elmer Lee of New York, valued at \$240,000 gross, and that of Mrs. Frank Stuyvesant Hughes of Cleveland, valued at \$430,000 gross have been left to the university.

STANFORD UNIVERSITY announces that during the year ending August 31, 1945, it received a total of \$3,400,110 in gifts. This sum is twice as large as that received in the previous year. Nearly two and three-fourths million of this total came from twelve donors with the balance coming from 3,506 other donors.

TEMPLE UNIVERSITY announces the receipt of a \$450,000 gift fund from Dr. Theodore L. Chase, a retired Philadelphia surgeon, for the establishment and endowment of a surgical research foundation, with special emphasis on cancer. The gift, representing one of the largest endowments ever given to the university, was presented by Dr. Chase in memory of his late wife, Dr. Agnes Barr Chase.

THE UNIVERSITY OF VIRGINIA has received from Jesse H. Jones, former Secretary of Commerce, \$300,000 to create a Woodrow Wilson School of International Affairs. Through the gift, Mr. and Mrs. Jones aim to help "in giving to coming generations of young Americans a livelier appreciation of the vital interests and heavy responsibilities of the United States in the outside world."

UNIVERSITY OF NOTRE DAME has received a gift of \$1,000,000 from Peter C. Reilly of Indianapolis, a member of Notre Dame's Board of Lay Trustees, and head of a tar and chemical corporation. This is the largest gift in the history of the university. It will be known as the P. C. Reilly Science Fund, the income from which will be used in the field of chemistry and chemical engineering.

UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA will receive virtually half of the \$200,000 estate of Paul P. Cret, to be used at their discretion for the best interests of the School of Architecture.

WASHINGTON COLLEGE has received a gift of \$50,000 from the Hodson Trust, a New Jersey educational foundation, toward the immediate erection of the first unit of a new dormitory group.

WILLIAMS COLLEGE alumni raised \$163,877 during the past year, the largest amount ever contributed in one year by the alumni. The result of the recent drive sets a record for small colleges for gifts for current expenses; 2,622 men contributed to the fund, or 40 per cent of the alumni body. The money will be used to finance the college during the period until normal enrolment returns.

WILSON COLLEGE had Herbert Hoover, former President of the United States, as the chief speaker at the formal exercises held on October 13, 1945, to commemorate the Seventy-fifth Anniversary of the founding of the college. Greetings from the sister institutions of higher learning were brought by Executive Director Guy E. Snavely of the Association of American Colleges.

NEW COLLEGE PRESIDENTS

- Concord College, Athens, West Virginia. Virgil H. Stewart.
- Earlham College, Richmond, Indiana. Thomas E. Jones, president, Fisk University, Nashville, Tennessee.
- Hamilton College, Clinton, New York. David Worcester, head, English department, Michigan State College, East Lansing.
- Henderson State Teachers College, Arkadelphia, Arkansas. D. D. McBrien.
- Juilliard School of Music, New York, New York. William Schuman.
- La Salle College, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania. Brother Dominic Luke.
- Lincoln University, Lincoln University, Pennsylvania. Horace Mann Bond, president, Fort Valley State College, Fort Valley, Georgia.
- Loyola University, Chicago, Illinois. J. T. Hussey.
- McKendree College, Lebanon, Illinois. Carl C. Bracy.
- Mississippi Southern College, Hattiesburg. Robert C. Cook, dean, University of Mississippi, University.
- Mississippi State College, State College. Fred T. Mitchell, dean of men and professor of education, Michigan State College, East Lansing.
- Murray State Teachers College, Murray, Kentucky. Ralph H. Woods, director of vocational education for Kentucky.
- Northland College, Ashland, Wisconsin. Manley E. MacDonald, dean of men and director of personnel, State Teachers College, Winona, Minnesota.
- Northwest Missouri State Teachers College, Maryville. J. W. Jones, dean.
- St. Joseph's College, Brooklyn, New York. William T. Dillon, dean.
- San Francisco State College, San Francisco, California. J. Paul Leonard, professor of education, Stanford University, Stanford University, California.
- State Teachers College, Fitchburg, Massachusetts. William J. Sanders.
- State Teachers College, Shippensburg, Pennsylvania. Levi Gilbert, superintendent of schools, Altoona, Pennsylvania.

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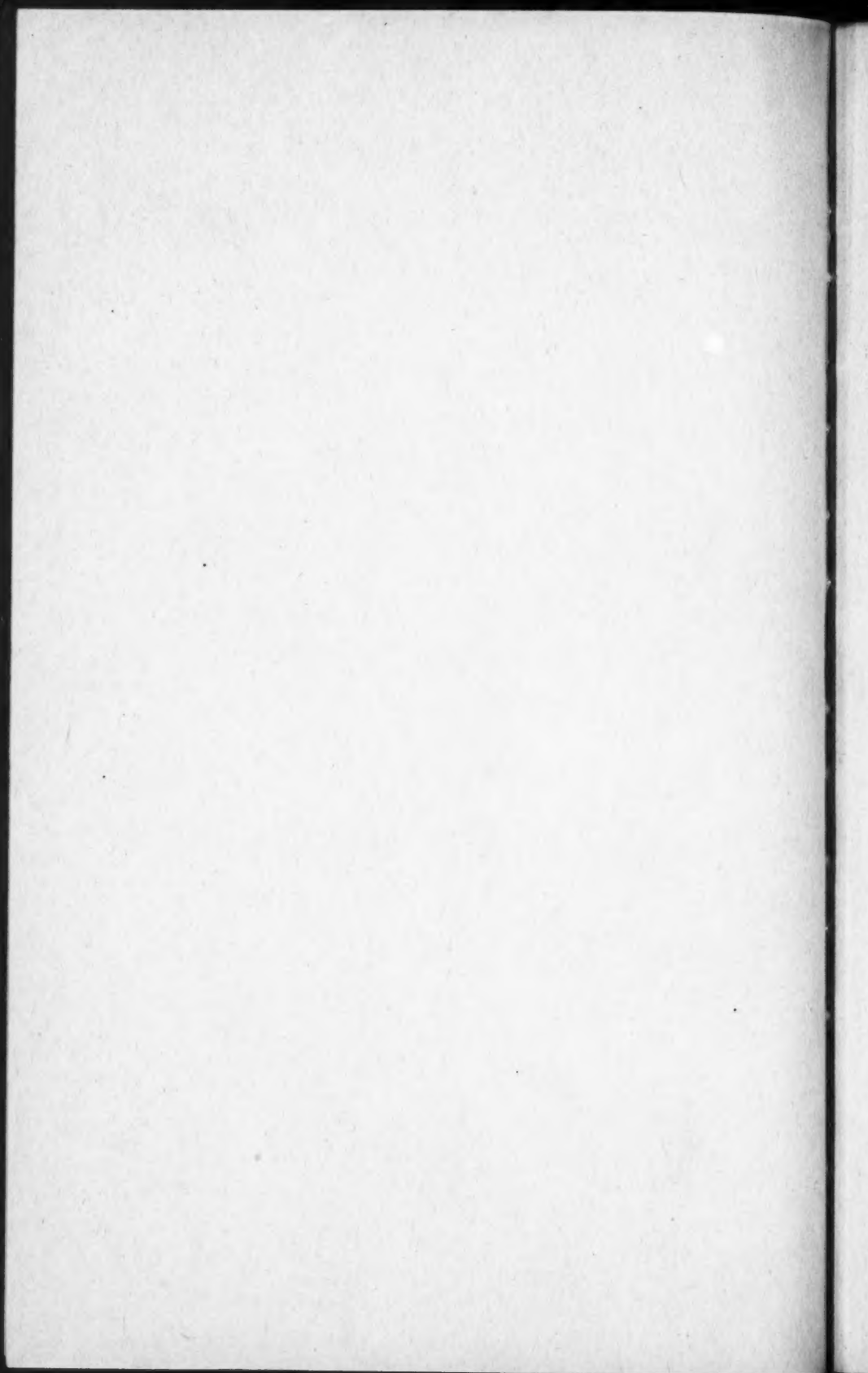
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